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AND

Industrial Resources, Statistics, etc.

DEVOTED TO

COMMERCE, AGRICULTURE, MANUFACTURES, INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS, POLITICAL ECONOMY, GENERAL LITERATURE, ETC.

"Commerce is King."

EDITED BY

J. D. B. DE BOW,

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ART. I.—TEHUANTEPEC AND ITS TITLE.

As the great problem of a direct transit to the South Sea approaches solution, it has encountered political obstacles more formidable perhaps than the natural barriers which have so long impeded its completion.

The Whitney scheme, indorsed by more than twenty states, seems to have been superseded by a new design, founded upon somewhat the same basis.

The St. Louis and Pacific Rail-road protests against the partiality of Congress, in bestowing upon Atlantic interests that patronage which should be rather applied to interior enterprises.

The Southwestern Rail-road to California, projected to unite an important system at El Paso, has found embarrassment in the right of "agreement" reserved by Mexico, and in the physical obstacles interposed by the initial point proposed by the boundary commission.

The Nicaragua transit route has been impeded by the intrigues of its enemies and the dissensions of its friends.

The Tehuantepec enterprise, having encountered foreign and domestic opposition of the most formidable character, has received the sanction of its own government, and an appreciation at the hands of the American people, which will secure its successful prosecution.

There ought plainly to be no rivalry amongst the Isthmian and Continental crossings referred to—they will all be temporarily or permanently necessary. They are so distant from each other that the commercial intercourse between distant regions cannot be condemned to employ any one of them to the exclusion of the rest. The foreign and interior commerce will be sufficient to furnish employment for them all.

Instead of one arrogant monopoly, fattened by exactions upon the world, there must be various ways of communication affording facilities adequate to any degree of intercourse, and a salutary competition promoting the common prosperity. To effect the construction of these principal connections with the Pacific, will require the co-operation of every influence, social, moral and political. Some of them are stupendous structures and must encounter great physical difficulties. They will require time, labor, and money. But by harmonious perseverance they can all be executed. They should be favored by the government in every legitimate manner; for their completion will assure to the United States an easy supremacy in the great contest for the control of the Pacific trade, and a perpetual union between the Atlantic and Pacific states. To the South the construction of some of these works will be of the highest political and commercial consequence. The Tehuantepec and Gila routes will turn through the southern states the precious commodities of Pacific commerce that now go around their coast. They will place them in comparative juxtaposition with the common territory, and insure a participation in the influences that govern it.

The position of the Tehuantepec enterprise having been placed by the recent action of the government beyond the pale of negotiation, and an alternative of the most serious character having been presented to the consideration of Mexico, it becomes important to review the historical progress of a measure of such importance, and to place the American public in possession of the points involved in controversy.

It is proposed to consider the following propositions:

1. The character and value of the Garay grant.

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2. That Mexico has unjustly confiscated the rights of American citizens.

3. That the United States ought to enforce the specific execution of the Garay grant.

For this purpose a short recital of preliminary events will become necessary.

The government of Mexico, on the 1st of March, 1842, made a grant of the right of way across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec to Don Jose de Garay. It also granted certain public lands and personal franchises to colonists of nations in amity with Mexico. This grant was by various deeds of assignment transferred to John Schneider & Co., and Manning & McKintosh, subjects of Great Britain.

It was during the year 1849 conveyed by absolute deeds to Peter A. Hargous, of New-York.

It was subsequently conveyed by Peter A. Hargous to an association, the members of which resided principally in New-Orleans. In 1851, the governments of Mexico and the United States signed a convention upon the subject of a right of way across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec.

This convention having been submitted, according to its terms, to the holder of the Garay grant, P. A. Hargous, received his assent and the signature of both governments in February, 1851.

In May, 1851, the Congress of Mexico declared the title of Garay void, for want of authority in the administration of Salas, which, by decree of 5th November, 1846, granted its extension.

In April, 1852, the Convention was submitted to the Congress of Mexico, and rejected.

In July, 1852, the President of the United States, in obedience to a resolution of the Senate, communicated to Congress the documents of title, and the accompanying correspondence; and on the 30th of August, the Committee of Foreign Relations reported in favor of the validity of the Garay grant.

The most authentic exposition of the Mexican argument will be found in a document entitled, "A Statement of the rights and just reasons, on the part of the Government of the United Mexican States, for not recognizing either the subsistence of the privilege granted Don Jose de Garay for the opening of a line of communication between the Atlantic and Pacific seas, across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, or the legality of the cessions which he made of said privilege to citizens of the United States of North America."

The Government of Mexico, having signed the Tehuantepec Treaty, published this Statement as an appeal addressed to the foreign diplomatic circle. This occasioned an indignant remonstrance from the American Minister, as "an act unprecedented in the annals of diplomacy." The Statement was then re-published in New-York, and circulated throughout the United States.

It displays neither the dignity nor justice of a state paper; an *ex-parte* apology for a pre-determinate conclusion, it appeals to prejudice rather than reason. It assumes for Mexico absolute integrity. It imputes to those who resist her purposes systematic fraud. It avows the most abject weakness, and implores the aid of others, yet contends that those who have expended money in developing the confiscated property, deserve no mercy for their misfortunes, and no indemnity for their loss. To fulfil the universal philanthropy of its professions, Mexico offers all mankind crossing the isthmus to the highest bidder; and to mark her detestation of "speculators" and "mercenary traders," seizes without compensation the property of others, and applies its results to replenish her exhausted coffers. If we add, that the Statement professes an exclusive knowledge of facts, with a peculiar purity of purpose, it requires but the signature of Ambrose De Lamela to make it a homily every way worthy that accomplished divine.

Before replying to the positions maintained in this document, it is proper to state that the American holders of the grant have never admitted that the validity of their title depended upon the legality of any specific administration of the Government of Mexico.

They have never permitted themselves to be enticed or driven from the impregnable ground taken by Mr. Webster:

That their title having been granted by a *de facto* government, as citizens of a foreign country they were not responsible for the consistency of that government with the principles upon which it had been ostensibly founded.

In support of this position, they cited the policy of the American Government, announced in the celebrated letter of Mr. Jefferson to Governeur Morris, quoted Mr. Buchanan's instructions to Mr. Trist, to treat even with "a dictator who had subverted the constitution of 1824, and acquired supreme power, whose ratification

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of the treaty, without the previous approbation of the general Congress, would be sufficient."

They argued that they were purchasers without notice of the title alleged to be defective, and that the example of their government was sufficient for their protection.

The reply to the arguments of the Mexican Government is not therefore admitted to be material to the validity of American title, but is intended to show that the confiscation of the property, by the Mexican Government, is unjustifiable upon any grounds whatsoever.

It will, we think, result from the consideration of the whole controversy:

1. That the grant to Garay is valid and binding upon Mexico.
2. That it has been legally acquired by American citizens.
3. That the confiscation of the grant by Mexico was mercenary and unjust.
4. That private right, and the interest of the American people, require the specific enforcement of the grant.

The first proposition advanced by the Mexican argument is—

That the charter of 1st of March, 1842, was granted by the provisional government, under the Bases of Tacubaya, subject to the right of Congress to revise it.

To maintain this proposition, the argument represents that the administration of the Mexican Government, which intervened between the grant of the charter and its repeal, in May, 1851, was continuous and legal.

To our reading, no period of Mexican history is more marked with misrule and anarchy. There was scarcely a stable—never, according to republican doctrine, a constitutional government.

A civil war broke out in the year 1841. Valencia, Minon, Bassadre, Paredes, Lombardini, headed the insurgents. General Valencia, with 1200 men, and nearly all the heavy artillery, bombs, and munitions of war, held the castle of Mexico.

President Bustamente defended the palace with a body of troops, whilst Arista and other partisan officers sustained the Government in the provinces.

Paredes marched on Mexico from Guadalajara, and Santa Anna advanced from Vera Cruz as a mediator between the belligerents.

The American Minister, Mr. Ellis, represents, in his dispatches, that these factionaries fought in the streets of Mexico, until the destruction of life and property compelled the citizens to interpose. This was effected by the convention of Estanzuela, and soon after the Bases of Tacubaya was adopted by the officers.

The truce between the combatants thus terminated in a treaty.

On the 7th October, 1841, General Santa Anna appointed a representative council, composed of two members from each department.

On the 10th October, 1841, he took the oath of office under the Bases of Tacubaya.

During the year 1842, an extraordinary Congress assembled. "In December, 1842," says the historian, "after the assembly had made two efforts to form a constitution, suitable to the country and to the cabinet, President Santa Anna, in spite of his professed submission to the national will, suddenly and unauthorizedly dissolved Congress.

"The event, (the dispersion of Congress,) says the American minister, was celebrated by a grand military procession through the streets of Mexico. It marched by my door, and I cannot express my feelings when I saw the ignorant and debased soldiery, headed by their officers, who, as to the true principles of a government calculated to secure the liberties of the people, were little better informed. *Thus celebrating the triumph of brute force over the will of the people fairly expressed.*"*

Santa Anna was then "clothed with a power without limit, and was sustained by a powerful army."† A dispute subsequently arose about the extent of his powers.

The 6th article of the Bases directed the Provisional President to answer for his acts before the first constitutional Congress. Santa Anna subsequently published in a decree his version of his own authority: he declared that his responsibility was merely "one of opinion"—that "the contracts made by the Provisional Government were inviolable, and, in short, could be only derogated in the terms and requisites established in the Organic Bases."

But the American minister says: "A provisional government was organized by the chiefs of the army, assembled at Tacubaya, a village three miles from Mexico."

By the 7th article of the Provisional

* Hon. W. Thompson.
† Report of Minister of State, Lafragua.

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Government, (as he understood it,) Santa Anna was invested in effect with absolute power. This provisional government was to last until a new constitution was formed, and the government should be organized under it.

The American minister then regarded Santa Anna as a dictator in possession of supreme power. But, according to another historian,* as soon as the constitutional Congress had been dispersed, "nothing then remained save to allow the Dictator himself to frame the organic law, and for this purpose he appointed a junta of notables, who proclaimed on the 13th June, 1843, an instrument which never took the name of a constitution, but bore the mongrel title of 'Bases of the Political Organization of the Mexican Republic.'"

Thus terminated the Bases of Tacubaya —a truce between military aspirants. Owing its authority to the "army of operations" of Santa Anna, it was naturally violated and perverted. Santa Anna held the charter of his own powers, and designated the extent of his own authority.

The substitution, then, of a "bases of organization," prepared by a junta appointed by Santa Anna, was the consummation of a revolution.

The Bases of Tacubaya, except so far as Santa Anna chose to derive supreme authority from it, was thus abrogated.

At the close of the year 1844, a new revolution overturned the government of Santa Anna, and on the 14th January, 1845, he finally fell.

This Congress of 1845 then contradicted Santa Anna's version of his own powers, and declared that all his acts were subject to their revision. The dictator had been supreme. He had fallen from power, and his enemies reversed his decisions. Here was anarchy, usurpation and revolt, in formal succession. The "Statement" subsequently says, that a decree of the 28th December, 1843, extending for one year the charter of Garay, required the confirmation of Congress, and adds—"so that if the Congress or government, in the exercise of their powers, had disproved it, Garay would have lost all his rights, as would have been also equally the case if the Congress had disapproved the concession (the charter) itself."

If the charter of Garay was subject to the revision of the first constitutional Congress that assembled *after* the Bases of Tacubaya, then the communication of all the acts of the Provisional Government by President Herrera must have included it; and if the "first constitutional Congress" did not rescind the charter, no other Congress can.

But the Bases Organicas was the law of the land from the date of its adoption, June, 1843. It contained the following provision:

"No retrospective law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, shall be passed."

The charter to Garay was a contract of the most solemn character between the government and grantee.

Not only was Mexico prohibited from passing any retrospective law, impairing her obligations by the terms of her own written constitution, but according to the law of nations, "he who has made a promise to any one has conferred on him a right to require the thing promised—consequently, not to keep a perfect promise is to violate the rights of another, and is as manifest an injustice as to despoil a man of his property." Yet to show that the right of retrospection, claimed by the Congress of 1845, could not have enured to the Congress of 1851, we pursue our review of the history of that period.

"On the 30th of December, 1845, President Herrera, who anxiously desired to avoid bloodshed, resigned the executive chair to Paredes. Paredes overthrew the government, and acquired supreme power."*

Here again the government changed its character by revolution. Here was another chasm between the Bases of Tacubaya and the Congress of 1851.

During the government of Paredes, the period within which Garay was required to prosecute the construction of the way of communication expired.

He applied to Congress for an extension of his term. The Chamber of Deputies passed a bill, which was pending upon the favorable report of a committee in the senate, when another revolution drove Paredes from power, dispersed the Congress, and established Salas the supreme dictator of the republic.

Salas having convened Congress by proclamation, the constitution of 1824 was, with certain amendments, adopted. He then resigned.

The Congress of 1851, owing its authority to the amended constitution of 1824, claims, under the Bases of Tacubaya, a

* Mayer.

* Mayer.

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right to repeal the charter of Garay, granted nearly ten years before.

The disgraceful scenes of usurpation and anarchy which continued for ten years, would have filled the hearts of most patriots with despair for the destinies of their country. But the Mexican statesman, to whose argument we have replied, seems to consider them as but temporary interruptions of what he is pleased to designate "constitutional order."

Disguised under terms of historical courtesy, the sanguinary revolution that threatened the capital with destruction, was a political difficulty adjusted by a convention amongst the disputants.

The decree of Santa Anna, defining his own powers, was illegal; but the Congress, which owed its authority to his revolutionary overthrow, restored the "constitutional order" by contradicting his definition.

The interlude of civil war, the flight, capture and expulsion of successive dictators, the exactions and oppressions of the government, the social disorganization, with its daily robberies and murders, all consequent upon ten years of revolution, are all omitted by this polite historian.

The "suspension of the constitutional rule," is the term by which he expresses the destruction of one form of government and the adoption of another.

"An interruption, occasioned by political circumstances," is the periphrasis which implies the irruption of Paredes, and the violent dispersion of the national legislature.

The "general act of the army" makes a very stable government, "implicitly confirmed" by a Congress permitted to assemble nearly a year afterwards.

A "fresh political emergency" characterizes a total change in the administration of the government.

How tenderly the historian walks over the volcanic ashes of a political eruption! To have derived a knowledge of Mexican history from no other source, the reader would infer that the period to which reference has been made was one of unbroken and prosperous tranquillity, unless when some ambitious insurgent interrupted for a moment the calm current of "constitutional order," which was immediately restored by the energy of the government, or the contrition of the offender.

We will add, however, a summary of the political events which are dispatched with such composure.

1. The Bases of Tacubaya, September, 1841.

2. The meeting of the extraordinary Congress convened to report a constitution under the Bases of Tacubaya, June, 1842.

3. The dispersion of the extraordinary Congress, by Santa Anna, December, 1842.

4. The appointment by Santa Anna of a Junta of Notables.

5. The proclamation of the Bases Organicas reported by them, June 13, 1843.

6. The deposition and capture of the President by Congress, January, 1845.

7. The appointment of Herrera President.

8. The forcible seizure of the government by Paredes, July, 1846.

9. The revolution of the citadel, and the forcible occupation of the government by Salas, August, 1846.

10. The proclamation by Salas of the constitution of 1824, with a reservation of paramount authority to the plan of the citadel, 22d August, 1846.

11. The adoption of the amended constitution of 1824, December, 1846.

12. The voluntary abdication of Salas.

This is a catalogue of radical changes within seven years which would last an ordinary people more than a century; and if the assertion of the Mexican argument be correct, that whilst the form of government is violently overthrown its obligations subsist, no human ingenuity could explain the complicated allegiance due to so many contradictory and conflicting forms of rule.

All this sophistry, however, has been employed to exonerate Mexico from compliance with one covenant. It might, with the same justice, be employed to cancel any debt, or repeal any engagement incurred within the period referred to. Revolutions would thus be made a source of profit, since a government might repudiate all bad contracts, and insist upon all good ones. But how are those who suffer from the acts of an illegal government to obtain redress?

From the foregoing recital of historical events, we think the first proposition of the Mexican argument has been refuted, and that it has been made evident.

1. That the Bases of Tacubaya was

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violated by the usurpation of Santa Anna, and superseded by the "Bases Organicas," which constituted for some years the rule of government.

2. That the Congress of 1845 had no right to revise the acts of the government of Santa Anna, because it was not the "*first* constitutional Congress" after the Bases of Tacubaya, and because it derived its authority not from legal succession, but from successful revolution.

3. That, if the Congress of 1845 had a right of revision, it was exercised in the communication by President Herrera, of all the acts of the government of Santa Anna.

4. That four violent and radical subversions of the existing forms of government having intervened between the Bases of Tacubaya and the Congress of 1851, that Congress could not have inherited from the Bases any right of revision, or any authority whatsoever.

Having attempted to establish the right of Congress to repeal the acts of a preceding administration, the "Statement" maintains the legality of the resolution of Congress, adopted 2d May, 1851, which reads as follows:

"The decree of the 5th November, 1846, is declared null and insubsistent, as the powers with which the provisional government of that period were invested were insufficient to dictate it."

The decree of the 5th November, 1846, is that granted by Salas during his dictatorship, extending the term within which Garay might continue the prosecution of his enterprise.

Passing by for the present the consideration of the obvious illegality of this resolution which confiscates private property without an adjudication, and repeals a contract made in solemn form by the government, we proceed to consider the allegation: that the President Salas had no authority to grant an extension of the charter of Garay.

The character of the powers of Salas will be inferred from the preceding narrative. He came in by the act of the army, and forced his predecessor, Paredes, to surrender the authority which he had usurped. The proclamation by the army of the plan of the citadel announced the anarchy that had reigned since the year 1835. It proposed the adoption of a constitution, acceptable to the whole people. For this purpose, it directed the call of a Congress, charged with the duty of reporting such a constitution. During the interval which elapsed, "José Mariano de Salas, General of Brigade, and in command of the Liberating Army of the republic," exercised the supreme executive power.*

The "Statement," in attempting to limit the powers of Salas, quotes from the plan of the citadel to prove that he was only authorized to adopt "such measures as may be deemed urgent and necessary, in order to sustain the honor of the national flag."

The plan of the citadel does not define the powers of the president, nor did it provide for his appointment. The 3d article provides that, "until the sovereign Congress shall have met and prescribed all that shall be convenient for the war, it shall be the especial [precisa] duty of the executive to dictate such measures as shall be urgent and necessary to sustain, with honor, the national flag, and to comply with this sacred duty without the loss of a single moment."

The 5th article made it the duty of the executive to summon the sovereign Congress, and to take care that the elections shall be conducted with the greatest freedom possible.

There is no other limitation upon or reference to the powers of the executive, contained in the six articles of the plan proclaimed from the citadel for the "true regeneration of the republic."

It is plain that the two articles quoted are only directory. It is one of the duties required of the executive to prosecute the war. But it is not the only duty, for he is in the next article required to summon the Congress, and superintend the elections.

In this avowed interregnum of any lawful authority, we must look to contemporaneous exposition for the true character of the authority of Salas.

The plan of the citadel proclaimed no constitution. Its first article is as follows:

"In place of the Congress which at present exists, there shall assemble another, composed of representatives, elected by the people, according to the electoral laws which provided for the election of the Congress of 1824. This shall be empowered to provide a constitution

* Caption of his decrees.

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for the nation, adopting such form of government as shall appear to conform to the national will. It shall also take cognizance of all that relates to the war of the United States, to the question of Texas, and to the frontier departments. It shall exclude a monarchial government, which the nation evidently detests."

On the 22d August, 1846, Salas, "exercising supreme executive power," published a proclamation, containing the following provisions:

"1. Until the new constitution shall have been adopted, the constitution of 1824 shall *govern in every thing which does not conflict with the plan proclaimed in the citadel, on the 4th of the present month, and the anomalous position of the republic will permit.*

"2. The continuance of the assemblies of the departments, and of the acting counsel of government not being compatible with the fundamental code referred to, the exercise of their functions will terminate from this period."

The same decree authorizes the governors of the states to continue the exercise of their office, and directs the governors of the territorial departments who are without a constitution, to act in the exercise of their duties, in conformity to that of the nearest state. The decree also adds, "that as the functionaries to whom reference has been made, have no legal authority, but owe their existence only to the political movement which is intended to regenerate the nation, and consequently that every interest must co-operate for the same purpose, they will be appointed or replaced by the general-in-chief, charged with the general executive power."

General Salas publishes other decrees, in which he defines certain powers of the Congress about to assemble, and prescribes the method in which their election and assemblage shall take place.

It is very plain, from an examination of the plan of the citadel, that the hostility of the army was directed against the acting Congress. The Congress summoned for the purpose of preparing a constitution, was limited to that duty, with certain others, defined in its appointment.

Indeed, the minister of relations, in his report of 1846, uses the following language:

"Conformably to the plan of the citadel, the Congress could exercise no other powers than those which were necessary to prepare a constitution, and provide for the prosecution of the war."

It would seem, then, that the powers of Salas were unlimited, and those of Congress restricted.

We have seen Salas decree a constitution for the government of the country. He limited this constitution in every particular in which it should conflict with the plan of the citadel. He organized state governments, and published decrees of a general character. All this was done during the interregnum occasioned by the overthrow of one form of administration, and the preparation of another, in accordance with the popular will. During the interval between the 4th August, 1846, and the 6th December, 1846, the power of Salas prescribed a special and organic rule of government. Were the proclamations which we have cited measures of military defence? They were acts of extraordinary and supreme power.

The courtly apologist who compiled the Statement, says, in regard to these events, "that the political change was only in *determining the constitution that ought to rule.*"

But this change is said by a Mexican historian to have been "the only revolution since 1835. The rest were revolts."

But *who* made this change? *Who* conducted and completed this revolution? Salas decreed the constitution of 1824 as a law *ad interim*, and gave effect to the will of the people by a voluntary and patriotic abdication. During the interregnum he was a dictator.

It cannot be said that his power was merely to provide for the military defence of Mexico. He passed many decrees, none of which were annulled, except that of Garay. But with the undisputed power to revive a dead constitution, and decree a new form of government, it certainly is not respectful to the intellect to assert that his powers were limited. If they were, then his decrees organizing the government must be void, and all the subsequent acts of the government must be tainted with illegality.

A military ruler is amenable to none, except his armed followers. The limit of his power is his own will, or their obedience. It is idle to speak of the restraints of a promise, or the weight of a precedent.

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But we continue the proofs, that the powers of Salas were dictatorial and unlimited.

"General Salas," says a Mexican author, "was a veritable dictator. It was the result of his pronunciamento to reverse the system of government, the proclamations of the government, the official documents, and, indeed, everything which has been done and executed, without the least contradiction, on account of its legitimacy."

In this proclamation of the 6th August, 1846, General Salas says: "The termination of all original obligations is indispensable, because all are either tainted with illegality, or offensive to a part of the nation. But the common law will continue in force, and *those which the provisional government propose to publish will fill, in a certain measure, the demand which circumstances may occasion.*"

In another proclamation of the 16th August, 1846, General Salas declares: "That he does not deem it necessary that Congress, when it assembles, shall employ itself in organizing the country, and negotiating in regard to the western frontier. *Since there remains to him* (Salas) *the powers necessary to organize every branch of administration, he adds, that he will be compelled, whilst organizing the Republic, to use for everything else discretionary power.*"

But the minister of relations reports to the Congress, convened under the decree of Salas, that Salas had "exercised *a true and ample* DICTATORSHIP, which should continue until the publication of the new constitution; and that, when the fundamental law should be published, General Salas would conform to it *as well as circumstances would permit.*"

The minister then reports all the decrees made by Salas, and terminates with these words:

"A federalist in good faith, I have made every effort to observe the constitution whenever circumstances would permit, and I have hastened, as soon as it depended on me, the meeting of the sovereign Congress, to the end that, *the dictatorial period* having terminated, the nation might at once realize those hopes which are born of every revolution, but which are always extinguished by the government."

No one, then, contested the absolute authority of Salas. His decrees were numerous, and upon various subjects, and the Congress of Mexico repealed a law of the State of Sonora, because it was in conflict with one of them.

But it so happens that we may appeal to contemporaneous testimony of the purposes of the government of Salas in granting an extension of the grant of Garay.

On the 14th, 15th and 16th December, 1846, the Minister of Relations—Lafragua—read before Congress a report of the acts of the government during the dictatorship of Salas.

This report affords a temperate narrative of the political history of Mexico, from the Bases of Tacubaya, in 1841, to the abdication of Salas. It is well worth the attentive perusal of the historian or student.

It has been already cited, to show that the government of Salas was authorized to exercise such power as the emergency might require. We shall therefore refer to so much of it as will show that the motives of Salas, in decreeing the renewal of the Garay grant, were connected with the promotion of a great and general measure of policy, the object of which was the safety and independence of the Republic of Mexico.

In the report of the "Relations with the Republics of South America and the Empire of Brazil," occurs the following explanation of the policy pursued by the administration of Salas:

"The nations of South America, the descendants of one and the same race with ourselves, professing the same faith, and speaking the same language, born, like ourselves, to sustain the same principles, and impressed with the same misfortunes, nothing can be more important to them and to us than to bind closer, and extend the relations which those common bonds and mutual interests have established.

"The prosperity, the existence of the Spanish and American republics depend upon their union. That will be the surest guarantee of their prosperity, and the bulwark of their freedom—the most harmonious means of quieting their internal conflicts, and the most irresistible power for sustaining their rights against foreigners.

"To this high purpose the organization of a general American alliance will contribute effectually. It is now more than ever necessary, because of the manifest tendencies of the northern races, as well in Europe as in America, to overrun that

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of the Middle region, these tendencies augmented, upon the continent, by the natural course of events, and the rapid and immense immigration from Europe—by the attractions of a fertile soil, a benign climate, the riches and sparse population of the new world—can be alone resisted by an alliance, which, from the identity of origin and interests, may be formed between the beforementioned republics, and will establish this American league as a centre of union, and a point of defence.

I regret that I cannot add anything more to the important memorial referred to, (of 1844.) except to recommend it earnestly to Congress; for this alliance will not only serve to protect us in the present crisis, but by giving to America the political importance to which she is entitled, enable her to contend with the impoverished nations of Europe; and perhaps, by the proposed policy, to become the centre of civilization.

"In such a result, what position will be due to Mexico, it is unnecessary to state, nor will I indicate it, since nature herself has pointed it out.

"One of the considerations which decided the government to grant the decree of November, 1846, was, that the opening the canal of Tehuantepec would promote a commerce with some of the aforesaid republics, by rendering our relations with them more intimate and active. Persuaded of the importance of every thing connected with this policy, it is left to the wisdom of this august body to provide the means essential to form a more intimate connection with the Southern republics, and which the existing government had not been able to effect, as well for the few days of existence which were left it, as because it was obviously obliged to consecrate its energies exclusively to the regulation of our interior affairs, and to sustain the unjust and unprovoked war of the North, which has occupied us to the exclusion of other things."

Independently of the merits of Garay's application for an extension of the term within which he was required to commence the construction of his work, the government of Salas was actuated by a wish to provide for the defence of the Republic, by the encouragement of immigration.

It is well known, that after the declaration of Mexican Independence, it became the policy of the government to encourage the immigration of a hardy and warlike race of colonists, who should become the defenders of their adopted country against foreign aggressions, and against the savage enemies upon the northern frontier.

In pursuance of this policy, Texas was opened to immigrants, and the most liberal donations of land made to empresarios and actual settlers.

The government of Salas seems to have adopted the same policy, confining, however, the invitation, as far as possible, to Europeans.

After having descanted upon the extent and fertility of the Republic, the minister asks,—Of what value is all this without population? He then affirms that the development and defence of the Republic alike demand the introduction of foreign immigrants.

A plan had been proposed to the government to encourage desertion from the army of the United States, because it "was composed, in great part, of foreigners who would enter with alacrity that service which should present the greatest inducements."

"This would weaken the invading army, and people the invaded country with a race generally devoted to industrial pursuits."

Upon this theory a decree was published, offering to deserters rights of citizenship and employment in the army or navy of Mexico.

In pursuance of this attractive policy, the government ordered land to be allotted to "Rollan, a deserter from the American army."

In respect to the decree of the 5th November, 1846, regulating the colonization of the lands conceded to the grantee of the way of communication across Tehuantepec, the minister goes on to say:

"The government in publishing this decree, as in regard to that respecting the liberty of the press, carried out the purposes of the Congress of 1845."

"The decree of Salas, in relation to Tehuantepec, not only confirmed those of the 1st March, 1842, the 9th February and 6th October, 1843, but by postponing for two years the term fixed for the commencement of its construction, promoted the completion of the enterprise, *which had been retarded by the consequences of our revolution.*"

The minister then explains in detail the motives of the several provisions of the decree in relation to the colonists. The exemption from any obligation to

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bear arms for twenty years, was intended to counteract the apprehension amongst Europeans that immigrants would be involved in the revolutions of the Republic, which were understood to be perennial.

For a similar reason colonists were exempted from paying Federal taxes during the same period upon implements of agriculture or of the arts.

The same exemption was granted upon the material necessary to construct and preserve the way of communication, and for the term of six years articles of subsistence, clothing and provisions, were admitted duty free.

All these privileges were granted to attract immigration.

The grantee was prohibited from introducing the subjects of any nation at war with Mexico; and it was enacted as an express condition, that colonists should renounce their citizenship, and subject themselves to the laws upon the subject of colonization. "The object of this condition was to close the door against reclamations, and because that would constitute the best policy for augmenting the permanent population of the Republic."

The decree provides further, that the enterprise shall submit, for the approval of the government, the contracts (of colonization) which it shall make.

Provision is also made in regard to the "streams necessary for the enterprise, and indemnity is decreed to the proprietors of the waters taken for that purpose."

"The government believes that it has effected a positive good by completing the arrangement of this important business, which will bring so much honor upon the Republic, and whose completion will secure such immense advantages to our country and to the world."

The argument of the minister is throughout worthy of a statesman. He has boldly affirmed that the true policy of the Republic is to invite foreign defenders. He has contended that the most powerful obstacles to be anticipated are religious intolerance and the insecurity of private rights.

He expects the new constitution to obviate these objections.

He expects the Tehuantepec proprietors to construct a canal which will facilitate a defensive alliance with the South American states. He thinks that the same liberal system of exemption and protection provided for in the general law of colonization will create military colonies, to restrain the "usurpations" of the United States of the North, and the "irruptions" of the savages.

This system of defence perfected, and the war with the United States "decorously" terminated, the minister considers that the foundation of a power will have been laid that will establish the independence of his country.

There was, however, an obvious dilemma in the scheme of colonization. The minister had proved that the Republic was not safe without additional population. There was a natural fear that the introduction of foreigners might be followed by the same results as in the settlement of Texas.

The latter consequence was to be prevented by the scrupulous exclusion of slavery, and of all persons whose government was at war with Mexico.

With the object of competing for that immigration to which, it was alleged, the United States of the North owed so much of their prosperity, the price of public land in Mexico was fixed at just half the minimum price charged by them.

It is very plain, from the testimony furnished by the document referred to, that the renewal of the grant to Garay was with no purpose of favoritism. It was done because of the meritorious efforts of the grantee; because of the "revolutionary interruptions" to this work; because it would "place in the hands of Mexico the commercial key of two continents." The grant of a way of communication would constitute the source of commercial prosperity, and the means of promoting a great American league for the defence of its members against foreign aggression.

The provisions regarding the colonists, to be introduced by the grantee, were common to other colonists immigrating into other parts of the Republic.

It was, therefore, part of a great system, designed by the government of Salas, to defend the country, and to "sustain with honor the national flag."

We are satisfied, that it will appear from the document referred to, and also from the report of the Commissioners of Colonization, that the true motives of the extension of Garay's grant have been herein set forth.* Nor was there any intention of entrapping the colonists into a renunciation of their citizenship that

*Report of Committee on Colonization.

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they might be subjected to peculiar disqualification, but it was intended to sever the imaginary tie that bound them to their native country and cause them to become *permanent* citizens, pledged to maintain the honor and defend the integrity of Mexico.

Such was the policy of the government then; and if it has changed in regard to the present proprietors of the Garay grant, it is because they are citizens of the United States, and apprehensions may be entertained that their acquisition of the rights accorded to others may be inconsistent with the interests of Mexico.

The foregoing views have been based upon the report and accompanying documents of an officer of the Mexican government, of unusual ability and of undoubted patriotism.

The report is a witness at once impartial and conclusive. It was written with no anticipation of the present controversy —with no eye to the rights of Garay. In explanation of a system of policy, he has incidentally told the motives which actuated the government of Salas in decreeing the identical bill of extension passed by the Chamber of Deputies. This explanation totally disproves the insinuation that the decree was the result of favoritism, or that it was the purpose of the government to resume the grant or entrap the proprietors into such a renunciation of their rights as would only render necessary a decree of confiscation to make them the unprotected victims of avarice or jealousy.

Mexico, however, has made a distinct admission that Salas was competent to decree an extension of the grant to Garay.

The government sanctioned the transfer of certain rights derived from the grant by its assent to the contract, July, 1847. It acknowledged the validity of some transfer of rights derived from the same grant by the declaration of its commissioners, September, 1847.

The authority of Salas was then adequate to authorize a valid transfer of rights derived under his decree of extension. But all the rights claimed and conceded by Garay resulted from the same instrument. How, then, could the transfer of one right be void for want of authority in the grantor, whilst another derived from the same deed is admitted to be valid?

We will only add, that during 1847, the constitution of 1824, with certain amendments, was adopted, and constitutes (at the last advices) the public law of Mexico.

In continuing our review of the Statement, we shall adopt the condensed exposition of its contents, prepared by Mr. Benton. It will save quotation, and present the allegations in a form to which Mexico can have no objection.

1. That the Garay grant is defunct upon its own limitations, and so declared by the Mexican Congress.

The grant was renewed on the 5th November, 1846, for two years, and the Statement admits that "Garay endeavored to prove that he had been occupied on the work, with few interruptions, until the 26th October, 1848; in proof of which, he inclosed a note from the Prefect of Acayucan, dated 25th November, 1848, to the Governor of Vera Cruz, in which he states that the engineer, D. Cayetano Moro, had returned to undertake the work."

Then follows the assertion, that the works had been prosecuted negligently, and not in good faith; consequently the condition of prosecution had not been complied with.

Under a constitutional government, a question affecting the rights of a private individual, ought, upon an allegation of forfeiture, to have been submitted to some impartial arbitrament, a *quo warranto* should have been issued, the parties should have been cited before a judicial tribunal, and the truth of the allegation should have been inquired into with all the solemnity of legal form. Here, however, the government repeals its contracts, stigmatizes the grantee as unworthy of credence, and impresses her own version upon the controversy between them.

But the charter was not forfeited, for certain conclusive reasons.

A public war was waged by the act of Mexico, from April, 1845, to June, 1848.

During the war, Mexico was invaded by a foreign power, which obtained possession of her capital, and blockaded her coast. In accordance with the terms of a treaty, under which Mexico ceded away nearly half her actual territory, the invading army was withdrawn, and peace was declared.

During this war the efficient prosecution of a work of internal improvement within the invaded country was impossible. Now it is a maxim of common law, that where a condition is rendered

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impossible of fulfilment, by the act of a grantor, the failure of the grantee to perform the condition cannot be alleged as a forfeiture of the grant.

If, then, the period of interruption be deducted from the term of the grant, it will be plain that there was no forfeiture for failure to prosecute the work within the time specified by the charter and the several acts of extension.

The grantee moreover proved the continuous prosecution of the work of construction by the testimony referred to.

2. That the grant is not transferrable in what relates to the inter-oceanic communications, but only in the colonization part, and that when the transfer is made to foreigners only, on the condition of renouncing their nationality.

The reply to the first branch of the proposition is found in the language of the charter. It grants "to Don Jose de Garay the exclusive power of opening and constructing, in the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, a communication between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, with the obligations, rights and advantages contained in the pre-inserted decree, dated 1st instant, conceding to him in full right of property and dominion, all the waste lands on the isthmus within ten leagues of the proposed communication."

"That in the name of the Supreme Government, and under the most solemn protests, he (the President) declares and promises that all and every one of the concessions mentioned in the pre-inserted decree shall be honorably fulfilled, now and at all times, pledging the honor and public faith of the nation to maintain the proprietor, Don Jose de Garay, *as well as any private individual or company, succeeding or representing him, either* NATIVES *or* FOREIGNERS, *in the undisturbed enjoyment of all the concessions granted. Holding the national administration responsible for any act of its own or its agents, which, from want of proper fulfilment of the covenant, might enforce the interest of the proprietors, all of course subject to the exact tenor of the inserted decree.*"

From this, it is plain that Garay was empowered to transfer "to any private individual or company," either natives or foreigners, all the concessions granted; so that his successors or representatives had a right to demand of the Mexican government the execution of that solemn covenant which pledged the honor and public faith of the nation to maintain them in possession.

This covenant and guarantee has never been modified. The right of way is still transferrable without limitation. This will be seen from an inspection of the acts of title.

The charter of the 1st March, 1842, recognized three distinct classes of grantees:

To Garay, and his representatives and assigns:

The exclusive right of constructing and making a way of communication across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec.

A grant in fee simple of all the unoccupied lands within ten leagues of the way of communication.

An exemption from all duties upon materials and supplies employed in constructing a way of communication.

To the citizens of all nations in amity with Mexico:

1. The passage across the isthmus having been opened, it is hereby declared neutral and common to all nations at peace with Mexico.

2. Under no excuse whatsoever will the "government lay any tax or impost upon any of the articles passing through the isthmus during the period in which the proprietors shall have the exclusive enjoyment of its proceeds."

And in no case shall they (custom-house officers) "interfere in the collection of transport dues, nor in the collection of freights, lighterage, tonnage, or any other class of dues, for none shall be payable by vessels loading or unloading for the transport of effects, so long as the communication shall belong to the negotiation."

The government also engages not to impose any contributions or taxes upon travelers or effects in transit, until the expiration of the aforesaid term of fifty years.

ART. 6. All foreigners are permitted to acquire real property, and to exercise any trade or calling, not even excepting that of mining, within the distance of fifty leagues on either side of the line of transit. That territory shall be the country of all who may come to establish themselves, subject, however, to the laws of the Republic.

The grant of Garay then contains:

1. An exclusive right of transit.

2. A grant of vacant lands in fee-simple.

This grant of lands has been loosely

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characterized as a "privilege of colonization." It was a donation made to promote the construction of the way of communication, and this is, no doubt, an implied condition of the fee simple, but it is not expressed in the charter.

But there is no condition that Garay or his successors should colonize the lands. The clauses which relate to that subject confer certain privileges upon the citizens of foreign states coming to reside upon the granted lands, as an inducement to immigration.

But the rights of the colonists under the grant underwent a farther modification. We have elsewhere stated that the Chamber of Deputies had passed a bill which was pending, upon a favorable report from the senate committee, when the revolution dispersed the Congress, and that Salas enacted the identical bill by his decree of the 5th of Nov., 1846.

This bill or decree was necessary to renew and extend the original charter. It therefore confirms the acts of title, as follows:

1. The decrees of 1st March, 1842; 9th February, 1843; and 6th October, 1843. It extends the term within which the work may be commenced, for two years, from 5th November, 1846.

It provides that the rates of light dues, pilotage, and the transmission of letters, shall be fixed by a special law.

It provides that for all private title within the granted limit of ten leagues, the proprietor of the grant shall receive an equivalent in waste lands lying elsewhere in the Isthmus.

It exempts materials for construction of the way of communication from any duty.

But it contains the following articles in regard to colonists:

ART. 7. All colonists making settlement under the enterprise to carry out the project, shall be exempt from military service for the term of twenty years, excepting only in case of foreign invasion of the isthmus.

ART. 8. They shall be similarly exempt for the same period, from all contributions not in the nature of municipal taxes.

ART. 9. All implements intended for agricultural purposes, and instruments for the arts, shall be exempt from all duty for a similar term.

ART. 10. All articles of subsistence, clothing, furniture, and other things useful for the construction and embellishment of houses, shall be exempt from all duties for the term of six years, to be computed from the establishment of the colony; but in case such articles should be intended for consumption in the interior, they shall be subjected to the general existing laws of the republic.

ART. 12. No colonists shall be allowed to settle who are at the time citizens of a state at war with the republic.

ART. 13. It shall be an express condition in all contracts with colonists, that *they shall renounce the privileges of their original domicile so long as they reside in the country*, subjecting themselves to all the existing colonial regulations which are not in conflict with the present law.

ART. 14. The enterprise shall submit, for the approval of government, *all contracts which it shall make for the introduction of families and laborers; and it shall keep a public and authentic register of all its transactions in respect to all matters of colonization.*

These restrictions upon the colonists were proper. If they came to reside in a country they should abide by its laws, and submit to its jurisdiction.

But the proprietors are referred to in the contract of July, 1847, with Manning and McKintosh, in connection with the denationalization of the colonists. The President says: "In this contract no mention is made of the renunciation of nationality as required by the 13th article of the law of the 5th November, 1846. This renunciation, according to that law, should be made by the *colonists* in the most express and distinct manner, so that whatever might occur, on no account whatever, or under whatever pretext, could the colonists or proprietors demand foreign protection, or any other rights than those allowed by the law of the country to which they are subject, both in person and property."

Now the only obligation imposed upon the colonists or proprietors, grew out of the 13th article of the decree of 5th Nov., 1846, which says:

"It shall be an express condition in all contracts with colonists, that they shall renounce the privileges of their original domicile, so long as they reside in the country, subjecting themselves *to all the existing colonial regulations which are not in conflict with the present law.*"

If, therefore, by virtue of this article, the proprietors have bound themselves to submit to colonial regulations, the article

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expressly makes the decree to which it belongs, paramount to these colonial regulations; so that no law in conflict with the provisions of the charter of Garay, or its renewal by the decree of Salas of 5th November, 1846, could operate upon their rights. We are subsequently told, in the Statement, that, "although the Mexican government had no doubt that Manning and McKintosh would denationalize themselves by accepting the transfer, still it demanded, and the contractors consented, that it should be so expressed in their contract."

We may observe that this contains a shameless avowal of an intention to entrap foreign proprietors into a renunciation of their rights of protection, and to consign them to the tender mercies of the "common law" of Mexico.

But the Statement assumes that under their contract the following consequences result:

1st. The colonists renounced their right of appeal to their own government whilst in Mexico.

2d. That the proprietor of the grant made an unconditional surrender of the same right.

According to the article quoted:

"It shall be an express condition in all contracts with the colonists, that they shall renounce the privileges of their original domicile *so long as they reside in the country.*"

If, then, it be intended to place the proprietor on the same ground with the colonists, his renunciation will only continue "*so long as he resides in the country;*" which, it is presumed, will constitute a very limited liability.

The contract meant that the renunciation of nationality by the colonists was during residence, and the proprietors were to interpose no foreign privilege to prevent the full responsibility of the former to the laws of Mexico whilst domiciled within its limits.

The Statement adds an extract from the 5th and 6th clauses of the law of 11th March, 1842, which says, that "foreigners acquiring property (in Mexico) are with respect to it subject to the existing laws in force in the Republic, as concerns transfer enjoyment of it, payment of imposts without alleging any rights as foreigners; consequently all questions that may arise shall be decided by the common law of the country, excluding all intervention whatever."

In the first place, as this contains provisions which are "in conflict with the decree of the 5th November, 1846," it has no application to those who claim under that decree. In the second place, no such legislation could limit the right of American citizens holding property in Mexico; since, subsequent to the date of that law, American citizens for an alleged destruction of property acquired in Mexico by the Mexican authorities have appealed to the government of the United States for redress and obtained it. In the fourth place, such a limitation of American rights would have been repealed by the operation of the XVIIth article of the treaty now existing between the United States and Mexico. In the fifth place, as the Statement expressly affirms, that the right of way was not conceded in the contract approved by the government, of course the proprietor could not have renounced his right of domestic protection in regard to *that* privilege.

But we have wasted too much space in refuting the statement whilst we have held Mexican admission: *that the acceptance of the transfer made by Garay to Manning and McKintosh did not denationalize the purchasers and proprietors.*

The Government of Mexico approved this transfer on the 9th July, 1847, with the conditions quoted.

On the 7th September, 1847, the Government of Mexico, in its communication to Mr. Trist, says:

"We have orally explained to your Excellency, that some years since the Government of the Republic granted to a private contractor a privilege with reference to this object, which was soon after transferred with the sanction of the same government to ENGLISH SUBJECTS, *of whose rights Mexico cannot dispose.*"

Now, if by accepting the contract with the indorsement of the government, Manning and McKintosh, the proprietors, had denationalized themselves, pray how were they at a subsequent date "*English subjects?*" and if they submitted themselves in their persons and property to the laws and government of Mexico, why could she not then have "*disposed of their rights*" as she has since confiscated and sold the same rights in the hands of their successors?

We hope to hear nothing more of the quibble in future, that the proprietors of the Garay grant residing in the United

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States have, by purchasing stock in an isthmus crossing, forfeited all the rights of American citizens, and subjected themselves to the civil and religious jurisdiction of a foreign government.

If the doctrine contended for by the "Statement" be correct, they may expect an immediate demand of extradition for their contumacy.

3d. That Garay, with the approbation of Mexico, only transferred to British subjects the colonization part of his grant.

That a government is bound by its own declarations is a fundamental principle of national law.

The Government of the United States, being desirous to obtain for the American people the right of free passage across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, applied, during the armistice at Mexico, to purchase that right. Mexico having replied that she had granted the right sought "to British subjects," the application was never repeated.*

Whether the transit right had been transferred at the date of the negotiation, might have become a question between third parties; but Mexico, as an honorable member of the family of civilized nations, is estopped from alleging the falsehood of her own assertion, to escape a compliance with her own contracts. Indeed, if she had never before granted right of free way across Tehuantepec, her declaration to the American Commissioner constituted an absolute cession of that privilege.

It will not be affirmed that her declarations were made to an enemy, and were therefore not obligatory upon her.

The Publicists say:

"The obligation of keeping faith is so far from ceasing *in time of war* by virtue of the preference which the duties towards ourselves are entitled to, that it then *becomes more a duty than ever.* For the same reasons all promises made to *an enemy in time of war are* obligatory."†

But the declaration of the Mexican government that it had granted away the transit, and that it had been transferred with her sanction, was literally true.

At the date of the declaration, Garay had made to Schneider and Manning and McKintosh a conveyance of certain lands upon the isthmus, in order that their sale and settlement might contribute to the construction of the way of communication.

The terms of the decree of Salas required a notice to the government of any intention to introduce colonists. This was complied with by submitting the contract to the government. The government acknowledged the notice by its endorsement of certain specific conditions intended to give strict effect to the terms of the decree. The contract thus submitted and approved, contained a clause announcing that Garay would in a short time transfer the right of transit to the same parties, or to others.

The Government of Mexico knew that Garay, the proprietor, had an unlimited right to transfer his transit right to natives or foreigners, without notice to Mexico, or without her assent. Hence, the government said to the American Commissioner:

"In the 8th article of your Excellency's draught, *the grant of a free passage across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec* is sought in favor of the North American citizens. We have orally explained to your Excellency, that some years since the government of the Republic granted to a private contractor a privilege with reference to *this object*, which was soon after transferred, with the sanction of the same government, to English subjects, of whose rights Mexico cannot dispose."

The Mexican government was perfectly aware that the grant had passed from its control, and that unless forfeited for non-compliance with its conditions, she could never resume it.

The charter granted to Garay, his representatives or successors, whether natives or foreigners, the exclusive right of constructing a way of communication across Tehuantepec, and pledged the faith of the Mexican government to maintain his possession.

This absolute deed, with general warranty, gave an unqualified right of assignment, and the Mexican government acknowledged to the American Commissioner that the right of transit, included in the deed, was beyond her control.

The advocates of Mexico have endeavored to show that her acknowledgment had reference only to the transfer of the

* It may be well here to correct an error—Mr. Trist in his dispatches says he did not make Mexico any offer for this right of way, though authorized to do so.

† Vattel, 371.

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lands, and the intention to introduce colonists.

We affirm that the grants only required a notice to the government in regard to the introduction of colonists. It only requires that a public registry of them shall be kept by the company. There are certain personal obligations imposed upon the colonists; but there is no obligation upon the proprietor to communicate to the government any transfer of the transit right, and none whatever to obtain the assent of the government to such transfer.

This is an assertion susceptible of easy disproof, if it be incorrect. The acts of title have been published, and accessible to all. If such a condition exist it can easily be shown.

But having employed the power of transfer to disfranchise the proprietor, the next position of the Mexican argument is particularly illiberal.

4. That a subsequent clandestine transfer was made, or feigned to be made, to British subjects, of the road part of the grant, and kept a secret for a year and a half; and, when made known to the Mexican government, immediately repudiated, and the grant declared to be extinct upon its own limitations.

If there was an unqualified right to transfer the transit right, there could be nothing clandestine in the proprietor disposing of his rights as he might choose. But the intention of Garay to sell to any purchaser was known to the government of Mexico, which had accredited him to its diplomatic representatives in Europe, when the object of his mission was known to be the sale of his privilege. The intention to make the transfer of his transit rights was also published in the 9th clause of the contract submitted to the government.

The government announced its existence to the American Commissioner, and it was consummated 28th September, 1848.

Of this transfer immediate notice was given by the assignees.

There can have been nothing clandestine in the transaction, because there was neither wisdom nor advantage in concealment.

But the explanation is obvious. The government of Mexico was involved in war.

During the greater part of the period referred to, a foreign foe was in possession of her territory and capital.

We apprehend that no one thought much of making canals or rail-roads through Mexican territory at that time, nor could the privilege of Garay have been of much value when the existence of the Republic hung upon the clemency of a conqueror.

The work of construction was interrupted during the continuance of the war, but there was no reason for concealing a transfer which the government of Mexico had declared was made with her "sanction."

5. That the transfers to British subjects were with the view of making the grant a British question, to be enforced by British diplomacy or arms; and failing in that, it was transferred to American citizens with the same view; foreigners all the while remaining interested.

These charges are all unsustained by proof, and contradicted by probability.

The transfer to British subjects was made with the sanction of the Mexican government: it was made to procure the means to construct the way of communication.

Some of the most valuable mines in Mexico are owned by British capitalists. She owes to them a large amount of debt.

Why should her citizens be reproached with having resorted to British capital to render their property more valuable?

The Isthmus of Central America is now under the control of foreign capital, and rendered useful by foreign enterprise.

Why should an imputation so gratuitous be thrown upon Garay for desiring to do what has been so meritorious and profitable in others?

The charge that foreigners (Manning and McKintosh) remain still interested, is unfounded. Their interest would not impair the validity of the title. But they have long since gone into liquidation, and are in no condition to furnish money, or to invoke "the arms or diplomacy" of Great Britain. They are in no wise interested.

The most conclusive evidence has been submitted and published that the grant to Garay has been conveyed by absolute deed, and the whole control of the property vested in American citizens. The removal of the political obstacles will immediately occasion such a distribution of the principal American interests throughout every section of the Union, as will

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interest the whole country in this important enterprise.

But these imputations of foreign interest are intended to impair the rights of the proprietors.

Mexico has recently advertised that she will grant the right of way across Tehuantepec to Mexicans or foreigners, or to both together. An enterprising American was understood to have visited Mexico with a view to acquire the same privilege.

We cannot see therefore how the argument that foreigners were interested, could affect the rights of American citizens who have invested their money in the acquisition and development of a property from which they have been evicted forcibly and without compensation.

6. That the transfer of American citizens was after the extinction of the grant.

If the term "extinction" means the expiration of the grant by its term of limitation, it is replied, that extending for two years the term within which the road should be constructed, it has never been extinct by any failure to comply with its own conditions.

If it means that the "extinction" of the grant was by the act of Congress annulling it, then a reference to the dates will show that the convention was signed by Mexico and submitted to the American holder (P. A. Hargous) in 1850, whilst the act of annulment was not until May, 1851. The transfer to the American holder could not therefore have been in either sense *after* the extinction of the grant.

7. That the interoceanic communication was to be a national work, under the auspices of Mexico, and in partnership with the contractor, in whom a personal trust was confided for its execution, Mexico contributing a breadth of ten leagues of land on each side of the route, and the labor of 300 convicts and her protection, Garay to be the directing and managing partner, and the profits of the road to be divided according to the decree of the 1st March, 1842.

If this route was to have been constructed as a national way, how does it happen that there was no national appropriation of money to construct it? Could it be possibly expected that 300 leperos could make a canal two hundred miles long? Could the sale of lands unoccupied since the conquest, or perhaps abandoned, pay for excavations, embankment, ironing, or equipping a rail-road? It required more than Mexican enterprise, richer than Mexican resources. Hence, no doubt, foreign co-operation was sought.

But Garay was a "directing partner, chosen for his qualities." The terms of the contract between the government and Garay seems to have been this: Mexico stood as grantor of an exclusive right of way and certain waste lands. Garay took the grant, subject to an obligation to commence the work within a given time—complete it, and pay over to the grantor a certain portion of the net proceeds of the perfected work.

Mexico expressly denies her responsibility for any expenses of development or construction, and imposes a forfeiture for failure to construct—not of the situation as directing partner—but of the whole concession. Garay is moreover recognized as the "grantee;" his grant is called the "negotiation," in contradistinction from the interest of the government; he is called the "projector," and himself, with those who may have acquired his rights, are termed the "proprietors" of the grant. Indeed the Statement which we are reviewing contains an elaborate argument to prove that the "proprietors" of the grant have forfeited their nationality, which they could not well do if Garay was a "directing partner" without the power of transferring his rights.

8. That Mexico did not intend, by the alienation of the privilege, to have a second edition of the Texas drama, against which Garay himself advises her, stating in his memorial that the covetous eyes of the United States were then fixed upon it.

This is an appeal to the sympathies of those of the United States, if there be any, who regret the annexation of Texas, and regard it as a drama. If a "second edition" of that drama had been intended, there were the mines and the valleys of Sonora, Chihuahua and Durango, contiguous to Texas. Mexico was, and is, unable to protect them from the ravages of the Indians. She relies upon the United States to do this for her, with an open acknowledgment of her own inability to do so. If a new Texas were needed, would not the first scene have been laid in the vicinage of the last? Would the citizens of the United States go nearly one thousand miles from their own territory to rob a right to make a rail-road? Would they have asked the interference of their own government,

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and abided patiently by all the forms of law, or would they have embarked with or without a grant, and overrun the country they desired ?

This is not a legitimate reason; this open distrust of a government which has preserved Cuba for Spain, and discouraged every symptom of invasion upon the borders of Mexico. But since such appeals are made, it may be replied, there can never be again a Texas drama. Never again will American citizens, invited by the colonization policy of Mexico, organize their institutions within one of her states, and, denied the constitutional rights to which they were entitled, be degraded into a military department. Never again will Mexico invade territory settled by Americans, with a decree of death against all who resist, and denouncing the best men as traitors, drag them like dogs to the dungeons of Perote or Mier. Never again will gallant Americans, deceived by the most sacred promises, draw beans for their lives, or be shot by platoons, in utter disregard of all the rights of citizens and all the sympathy of foes.

There will be no other Texan drama. The Anglo-American will hereafter be free to traverse his own broad continent with no protection except his own nationality.

But with an avowal of such a jealousy of race, with a resolute refusal to make any compensation or allowance to those whom she has despoiled, it seems strange that Mexico should appeal to the people of the United States for sympathy.

9. That the grant was a local privilege, done under the authority and laws of Mexico, unconnected with treaties of the laws of nations, and that questions concerning it are only cognizable in Mexico.

The grant is addressed to all nations at peace with Mexico; it proposes to provide a transit free from any local tax whatsoever. It authorizes the transfer of the grant to foreigners, and pledges the government to maintain their possession.

The acquisition of the property by American citizens has been in consequence of these inducements, and because from the face of the title they could not have anticipated its repeal. Having been deforced of their property, they have no other remedy than an appeal to their own government; and that government, upon a proper state of facts, will require of Mexico compliance with her covenant or indemnity for having violated it.

"There is no difference (says the law of nations) between the sanctity of a covenant made by a nation with a citizen and with a foreign nation: a grant is a contract between the nation and the individual who receives it. It is the more binding from the dignity of the one and the weakness of the other."

Under the convention of 1818, citizens of the United States claim the right of fishing within the jurisdiction of Great Britain; they have been forcibly expelled from their right. Here is a franchise acquired by individuals within the territory and jurisdiction of a foreign power. The rights of our citizens will be enforced by the United States at any cost.

The Americans interested in Tehuantepec have acquired a franchise within a foreign jurisdiction. They have been violently and without indemnity expelled, and their property confiscated. They are entitled to the same protection upon the same principle.*

10. That the grant from the beginning was a mere speculation, the brokerage of a contract procured to be sold, and not to be executed by the grantee, though confided to him to be granted as a personal trust.

The grant of lands for the construction of the way of communication is apparently liberal; how far, when private title shall have been compensated, and the large proportion of mountain region deducted, there shall remain arable lands capable of aiding in the work, it is unnecessary to inquire. But it is not in the United States that such enterprises should be stigmatized.

Mr. Asa Whitney has obtained the recommendations of more than twenty states to his petition that the Federal government will grant him in fee simple a strip of territory commencing on the lakes and terminating on the Pacific. Estimating the area of this grant in square miles, it would bestow upon a

* According to the provisions of a convention between Great Britain and Russia, the Hudson Bay Fur Company considered themselves entitled to trade within the limits of the Russian North American possessions. Having fitted out vessels for this purpose, they found the mouth of the river for which their expedition was directed fortified, and they were forbidden to enter the country.

Great Britain demanded satisfaction for the loss and disappointment occasioned her subjects, and it was accorded.

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single proprietor a territory equal to the surface of several states of the Union. Appropriation for a grant of public lands, at least equal in extent, is asked for the rail-road from St. Louis to the Pacific; and the states of the South and West have projected a way of communication by the El Paso and the Gila to the same terminus. The Legislature of Texas and the Congress of the United States have made appropriations of land for constructing sections of this grant, and the public lands are relied on to furnish the principal resources for all. Other states have already received land donations of great extent and value for similar purposes.

Indeed, the policy of the United States, in regard to its public lands, would justify any grant, however liberal, for a way of communication across Tehuantepec. Within the last three years, nearly forty millions acres of public lands have been granted to the states for the construction of rail-roads; whilst at the last session a bill passed the House of Representatives giving to each settler a settlement bounty of 160 acres.

No argument, then, should be drawn against the moral obligations of the Garay grant, from the extent of the land donation, nor from the fact that it was bestowed, as such works generally are, upon an applicant and contractor.

But Garay realized nothing. A man of high personal character, preferring rather to rank amongst the benefactors of mankind than to figure in futile revolutions, after all he has given and done for his enterprise, he has been compelled to abandon it to others.

11. That the grant is null and void, and has been so declared by the National Congress, and its renewal refused, and the treaty to that effect overwhelmingly rejected by the Mexican authorities and people.

This is but repetition. The Congress of Mexico did not refuse to renew the grant, for the holders never requested it, nor did they admit any right to annul it.

The declarations of unwillingness to comply with a covenant, constitutes no proof of its invalidity.

12. That the present assignees, so far as they are bona fide holders, are the dupes of their own folly or carelessness, as all the defects of the grant were open to their detection.

The present assignees are, from the terms of the original and amended charters, all bona fide holders. They are the assignees and successors of Garay; such is their actual and legal description.

The charge of having been the dupes of their own folly and carelessness is a harsh enforcement of the power of construction.

History will show that the title under which the American holders claim, has been acknowledged by six successive Mexican administrations, and that the government of the United States has pronounced it legal.

The proprietors have expended much money, and by their survey and developments have rendered the way of communication valuable. Mexico has confiscated their property and refuses them any compensation. She claims that she is weak, and the United States powerful. She asks to be allowed to cancel her covenants; and her advocates contend that those citizens of the United States who are aggrieved by her act are not entitled to any redress whatsoever.

If it be "folly and carelessness" to have relied upon the moral obligation of Mexico to comply with her engagements, or upon the obligation of their own government to enforce the rights of its own citizens, the owners of the Garay grant must admit the imputation. Not otherwise.

We have discussed the first two propositions, which involve the character and value of the Garay grant, and the unjust and mercenary conduct of Mexico towards the American assignees. We have shown that their title is valid, and that the investment and expenditure have been recognized by our own government.

We will next show that private right and public interest require that the United States should insist upon the specific execution of the title.

When the government of the United States expected to acquire territory on the Pacific, it naturally sought a way of ingress and egress to and from it. Upon the conference of the armistice, Mexico instructed her commissioners to prescribe a northern boundary, twenty leagues in width. This was not to be colonized by either nation, but to remain as a "desert" between them. She also instructed her commissioners to refuse the right of way across Tehuantepec. Her policy was obvious. She knew that if all communication *through* her dominions could be prevented, the United States would never occupy the Pacific territory acquired by the treaty, if it could

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only be settled by immigrants across the Plains, or around the Cape.

The "desert boundary" was not adopted, and the American demand for a "right of free way across Tehuantepec" was withdrawn, because of title in British subjects. But Mexico succeeded in putting the following singular restrictions upon the American right of way to the Pacific, into the Treaty of Peace, Amity and Limits:

"ART. VI.—The vessels and citizens of the United States shall in all time have a free and uninterrupted passage by the Gulf of California, and by the River Colorado, below its confluence with the Gila, to and from their possessions, situated north of the boundary line defined in the preceding article; it being understood that this passage is to be by navigating the Gulf of California and the River Colorado, *and not by land, without the express consent of the Government of Mexico.*

"If, by the examinations which may be made, it should be ascertained to be practicable and advantageous to construct a road, canal, or railway, which should, in whole or in part, run upon the River Gila, or upon its right or its left bank, *within the space of one marine league from either margin of the river*, the government of both governments will form an agreement respecting its construction in order that it may serve equally for the use and advantage of both countries."

When it is considered that the passage of the Gila lies through a country presenting more physical difficulties than any perhaps on the continent, and that Mexico has reserved the right of "agreement" to any way along its banks, *even on the American side*, the obstacles to an intercourse with the Pacific, upon this route, may be appreciated. They would be greatly increased by the initial point of the boundary, fixed by Mr. Bartlett, if it should be adopted by the government.

From this, it is evident that there will be important obstacles to overcome before a right of way can be obtained by way of the Gila. It is not probable that Mexico will consent to open that way of communication, because it will compete with that which she desires to construct and control by way of Tehuantepec.

Nor is there evidence wanting to prove that Mexico meditates the establishment of an exclusive way, to be constructed and worked for her own benefit.

No sooner had the Mexican Congress repudiated the title of the American holders, and rejected the Tehuantepec treaty, than it published a decree expressive of the terms upon which it was intended to open the Tehuantepec route. This decree affirmed:

1. That Mexico possessed full and unqualified sovereignty upon the isthmus.
2. That the government should be the controlling partner in the way of communication.
3. That the route should be open and free for all nations in amity with Mexico.
4. That all nations should be invited to guaranty the neutrality of the isthmus in case of war.

The contract for constructing a way of communication, not having been perfected by the government, it proceeded on the 15th August, 1852, to invite proposals upon the following terms:

1. The contractor to construct the work for an agreed sum.
2. The contractor to advance the money necessary to construct the work without regard to cost.

The contractor to be reimbursed under the first proposition, by an annual payment of six and a half per cent.; under the second, by an assignment of ninety per cent. of the revenues of the work itself.

The government to be constituted a stockholder to the extent of one third of the work, with power to take the work at any time upon accounting to the contractor for cost and interest. The government reserves free transportation of troops and persons in its employment, and of arms, munitions and property, at one-fourth tariff rates.

It reserves the right to fix "any additional impost upon merchandise or passengers," and prescribes that "*it will not be lawful to transport, without the express order of the government, any foreign troops or munitions of war.*"

The object then of annulling the rights of American citizens is sufficiently plain. It was to gain a large bonus, and make revenue of the intercourse between the Atlantic and Pacific states.

The charter of Garay contains the following provisions:

"Under no excuse whatsoever will the government lay any tax or impost duty upon any of the articles passing through the isthmus during the period in which the proprietors shall have the exclusive enjoyment of its proceeds, and in no case shall these (the Custom House officers)

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interfere in the collection of freights, lighterage, or tonnage, or any other class of dues, for none shall be payable for vessels loading or unloading for the transport of effects, so long as the communication shall belong to the negotiation."

This gives the American people as free a passage across the isthmus as they would have through any state of the Union. If, however, this be repealed, all persons and property coming into that portion of the Mexican dominion, will be subject to the general law of transit, import or export. The taxes of Mexico are very onerous. Her police in regard to passports and bearing arms is very strict.

Having again resumed the sovereignty which is qualified by the grant to Garay, Mexico would have the undoubted right to impose any taxes upon the intercourse through her dominions, that foreign nations would endure, or she would have the right to discriminate and exclude them from passing through her dominions at all.

Being in undisputed possession of the right of way, Mexico might cede it to some foreign power, or as announced by a leading English journal, France and England may interfere actively in the affairs of Mexico; they may establish "a firm and solid government," and invite the United States, Spain, Holland and Belgium to maintain it.

It is moreover proposed, "that as the Tehuantepec route will inevitably form one of the principal channels of communication between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans," a Commissioner should be appointed to receive the reports of eminent native and foreign engineers as to the best means of constructing this line of communication, "and the powers shall guarantee a loan sufficient to carry it out, on the understanding that the transit duty levied shall be applied to the interest and redemption of the debt."

The United States are more interested than any other nation in this route, because it is the best way of communication between the states of the Union, whereas other countries are only interested, as one of several ways of general commerce. Here then is a plan for paying for the work by a transit duty, which must fall principally upon the people and property passing from one state to another.

Such a disposition of the right of way would be highly profitable to Mexico. She would receive an annual revenue upon the transit of one hundred millions of gold, one hundred and fifty thousand passengers, a large amount of merchandise, the California mail, besides troops and munitions of war. This would be the contribution of the United States alone.

It is then evidently the interest of Mexico to repeal the obligations of the Garay grant, and impose revenue taxes upon the national commerce passing over the isthmus.

It is equally evident, on the other hand, that the United States and other nations in amity are interested in enforcing her covenant with Garay.

The American holders have been always willing to permit their own government to regulate their charges upon the isthmus, and prescribe any regulations necessary for the comfort and safety of the public. The American people need not, therefore, fear that in preventing the establishment of one monopoly, they are encouraging the organization of another.

But the political importance of a rapid, safe and healthful communication with our states and "orphan territories" on the Pacific, exceeds any question of pecuniary calculation. We may anticipate within a few years a system of states resting upon the Pacific Ocean, and extending to the slopes, valleys, and into the great Basin of the Rocky Mountains. With greater inducements than any colonial settlement has ever presented, we may anticipate more rapid and perfect organization. States will know no interval between embryo and maturity; they will step from the parent brain ready armed for the field or council. They will not be settled by outcasts, convict for heterodox opinion or for social crime. They will comprise the selected energies of a free people; they will organize their relations according to their interests. With a full appreciation of the blessings of the Union, they will hold the "pursuit of happiness" as a paramount object. If the political connection with the Atlantic states be advantageous, it will be preserved; if it be replete with disadvantages, it will be terminated. The chief advantage of the Union to California at present is that it constructs dry docks and custom-houses, establishes branch mints and post routes, and furnishes office holders. The appropriations at present exceed the revenues derived from the Pacific ports. But this will

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cease, and be reversed. The revenues derived from the states of the Pacific will in time exceed the appropriation from the federal government. This motive for the connection will then terminate.

The federal government extends an apparent protection to the Pacific States. But suppose, in the present state of intercourse between the two sections, that a maritime nation should declare war against the United States. A descent upon the coast of California, and the capture of her treasure galleons, will be simultaneous with the declaration. The United States will dispatch its volunteers by the isthmian routes, or by the plains, but they will find cities sacked, and all the consequences of successful invasion, whilst the enemy, having slain and ravaged to their satisfaction, will have withdrawn. These will constitute to the Pacific states the *responsibilities* of belonging to the Union: to pay more than they receive, and to be the defenceless victims of its foreign wars.

The trade of the Indies constituted the prize of centuries; no state has enjoyed it without prosperity, or lost it without decline. The merchants of our Pacific states may not be content with a mere factorage of this trade for others; they may prefer to constitute the medium of distribution, making others tributary to them.

To these tendencies to separate, the want of communication will powerfully contribute. Practically, France, England or Ireland would constitute more accessible members of the confederacy than California or Oregon. Practically, the expense and time of intercourse with those nations would be less by one half than with the Pacific coast or its interior.

It is therefore the identity of origin and institutions that preserves the bond of connection with the Pacific states.

But let us consider the existing obstacles to intercourse in detail. The ways of communication are—

1. By way of the frontier, across the Rocky Mountains and the plains. This is a terrible journey. The time occupied by immigrants is five months. This covers every vicissitude of season and every degree of endurance. Superadded to the casualties of a march so extended, are, the dangers of inundation, fire, disease, want of food, the heartless exactions of those who make a prey of the traveler, and the perpetual depredations of unruly and rapacious savages. The course of the traveler is pursued by privations and waylaid by death. It is marked with impaired health and disappointed hopes. It is strewed with abandoned values, richer, perhaps, than the mines to which the wanderers go.

An allegorical epitome of that great journey which all must travel, it terminates in an unmarked grave, or in weariness and vexation without ultimate advantage.

The journey across the plains is not like that of a protected people whose "raiment did not wax old upon them." But it is like that disastrous return from a blazing city, in which the foe, the elements, the wild beasts, preyed upon the retreating host, and the richest objects of human desire were abandoned, or torn from the grasp of the dying fugitive.

That this description may not be considered as imaginative, we add some extracts from the report of Capt. Stansbury, U.S.A., (Journey from Leavenworth to the Great Salt Lake,) showing the difficulties encountered by emigrants upon that portion of the route to California.

"June 1, 1849.—Passed a traveling train consisting of about twenty-five ox teams. They had been on the spot several days detained by sickness. In the morning we had met four men from the same camp returning on foot with their effects on their backs, frightened at the danger and disgusted already with the trip.

"June 4.—Meet Sauk Indians, who demand compensation for passing through their country.

"June 5.—Meet a small party of emigrants returning, having sold out their meat and flour at one cent a pound.

"June 6.—Passed a melancholy memento of disappointed hopes and blasted enterprise—four freshly made graves of emigrants.

"June 7.—Passed a fresh grave.

"June 8.—Met a small party returning to St. Louis.

"June 9.—Passed six graves. Meet returning emigrants, discouraged by death and loss of cattle.

"June 10.—Three horses stolen during the night.

"June 11.—Violent storm of rain, prostrates the tents and wets the baggage. Passed six graves within 17¼ miles.

"June 12.—Pass an emigrant family, who subsequently saw their wagon in

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two to make carts, and dispose of everything they can sell or give away to lighten the load.

"June 13.—Violent storm. There is no shade in the naked prairie during the long fatiguing day. Observe Indians lurking along the road for a chance to steal horses.

"June 14.—Fight reported between emigrants and Indians.

"June 18.—Party complaining of cutaneous irritation from use of salt meat without vegetables.

"June 19.—Emigrants selling meat at one cent, or using it for fuel; pack animals in a horrible condition. Storms and violent rain.

"July 2 and 3.—Difficulties and dangers of crossing Plains described. Ravages of cholera amongst savages.

"July 9.—An excellent double wagon purchased for seventy-five cents.

"July 19.—Passed to-day the nearly consumed fragments of about one dozen wagons that had been broken up and burned by their owners; near them was piled from 600 to 800 pounds of bacon. Boxes, bonnets, trunks, wagon wheels, whole wagon bodies, cooking utensils, in fact, almost every article of household furniture were found from place to place along the prairie, abandoned for want of means of transportation.

"July 21.—The road, as usual, was strewn with fragments of broken and burnt wagons, trunks, and immense quantities of white beans thrown away by the sackful, from fatigue or fear of cholera. Stoves, gridirons, moulding planes and carpenters' tools of all sorts were to be had at every step for the mere trouble of picking them up.

"July 25.—Property of every description was strewn about in every direction, and in much greater quantities than we had yet seen. Twenty-eight persons drowned during the year in crossing the Platte.

"July 27.—Passed eleven wagons broken up. Road strewn with abandoned property. Bar iron and steel anvils and bellows, crowbars, drills, augers, gold washers, chisels, axes, lead trunks, spades, plows, grindstones, ovens, cooking stoves, kegs, barrels, harness, clothing, bacon and beans, were found strewed along the road. The carcasses of eight oxen lying on the road side in one heap explained a part of the trouble. An excellent rifle was found. In the course of this one day the relics of 17 wagons and the carcasses of 27 oxen have been seen.

"July 28.—Wind so hot and dry as to make respiration difficult. Thirty-one dead cattle and nine oxen passed to-day.

"August 1.—Passed about one dozen burnt wagons and nineteen dead oxen."

We ask whether there can be any intercourse adequate to the relations which ought to unite the states of this confederacy carried on under such appalling obstacles? Will there be any return current from such a journey as we have described? Will the people who have emigrated to California revisit the land of their nativity by this route, or will they relate to their children the terrors of their exodus, and warn them never to cross again a region so replete with dangers?

2. Upon the crossings of the lower isthmus the dangers are as formidable. The line passes for nearly six thousand miles along a coast much of which is dreaded for its rocks, reefs and tornadoes.

The passenger is exposed to all the dangers of fire, explosion, shipwreck, to epidemic and infectious disease, and to all the discomforts of a voyage prolonged to nearly twice the time and distance of the transatlantic passage.

Under these circumstances, it is plain that the intercourse by these routes must be limited to those who travel upon the compulsion of duty, or are stimulated by the appetite for gain. We intend no disparagement, however, to the lower crossings; they are from the nature of things temporary, as far as the intercourse with the Pacific States of the Union are concerned, but they will always be invaluable for the general purposes of Pacific commerce, and for the particular trade of the coast of South and Central America. Tehuantepec itself, offering greater facilities for the inter-state intercourse, will in its turn be superseded by rail-roads crossing the continent in the latitudes of California and Oregon. Until that period, however, it will evidently constitute the shortest and most favorable route.

It will reduce the time between New-York and San Francisco to fifteen days, between New-Orleans and San Francisco to about eleven.

It will, in effect, form a section of the following rail-roads, whilst it will incidentally benefit many others.

1. The New-Orleans and Nashville Rail-road.

2. The Opelousas Rail-road.

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3. The Mobile and Chicago Rail-road.
4. The Alabama and Tennessee Rail-road.
5. The Virginia and Tennessee Rail-road.
6. The Richmond and Danville Rail-road.
7. The Southwestern Georgia Rail-road.
8. The Charleston and Hamburg Rail-road.
9. The Savannah and Florida Rail-road.

Each of these nine radial lines, with its interior connections, will contribute to the commercial intercourse between the states and cities of the South and Southwest and the Pacific. The immense resources upon the enumerated routes, and the competition amongst them, will reduce greatly the charges and promote the comfort of the travel upon the Atlantic section of the route to California.

The united intercourse of California and Mexico will have a similar effect upon the cost of crossing the Gulf of Mexico.

The reduction of ocean steaming upon the Pacific coast will contribute to the same result.

It will lessen greatly the cost of mail transportation, because the mail being already paid for through the United States to New-Orleans, Mobile and Pensacola, and provided for across the Gulf of Mexico to Vera Cruz, the whole coast mail line from New-York around to the point of intersection, off Tehuantepec, would be saved.

The adoption of a route comparatively domestic would diminish greatly the tendency to collision between our citizens and the punctilious authorities of the European dependencies in the West Indies.

The saving on interest and insurance upon the precious metals, would constitute another principal subject of advantage; whilst the reduction of fares, the promotion of health and comfort to the immense number of persons annually passing between the Atlantic and Pacific states, all demand the earnest consideration of the government.

It is therefore obvious, that the effect of a free way of communication for the citizens of the United States across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, would be to shorten the time, reduce the cost and increase the comfort, of their intercourse with the prosperous and expanding states of the Pacific; and if the subject has been placed in the point of view which it merits, it is obvious that the American people are far more interested in securing the right of free passage across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec than the proprietors of the Garay grant.

ART. II.—WISCONSIN.

POPULATION, RESOURCES AND STATISTICS.

THAT part of the territory of Michigan lying west of the Menomonee River and the middle of Lake Michigan, was, on the 4th day of July, 1836, constituted by an act of Congress as the Territory of Wisconsin. In the year 1848, Wisconsin was admitted as one of the states of the Union.

On the northern border of this state is Lake Superior—the largest body of fresh water in the world; and on the east, Lake Michigan—second only to Lake Superior in size—but vastly more important to Wisconsin, as forming a link in the great chain of inland seas that connect her with the east. Besides these vast bodies of water, smaller lakes of crystal clearness are scattered promiscuously over the surface of the state. Many of them are of the most romantic nature, presenting to the eye scenery that is indescribable, even by the pencil of the artist.

The Mississippi River forms, in part, the western boundary of Wisconsin. Among the tributaries to the "Father of Waters" in the state, are the Wisconsin, Chippewa, Black and St. Croix Rivers. The Mississippi is navigable in all parts bordering on this state. The Wisconsin is also of sufficient depth to admit of small steamers ascending to the "pine regions." The waters of the lakes and rivers usually originate in springs of pure, cold water.

No state in the Union has increased with the same rapidity that Wisconsin has, (unless we except California, whose population can hardly as yet be considered as altogether *permanent*.) Its population has progressed as follows:

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1840,	total population,	30,945
1842,	" "	44,478
1846,	" "	155,277
1847,	" "	210,546
1850,	" "	305,538

An increase at the rate of 890 per cent. during the past ten years! At the present time, Wisconsin may safely claim a population of *four hundred thousand.* The number of deaths in the state, for the year 1849, was 3,039, or one to every hundred inhabitants. This is a high degree of health, and facts gathered from the census returns show that Wisconsin is one of the healthiest states in the Union.

Milwaukee is the principal city in the state, situated on the shore of Lake Michigan, ninety miles north of Chicago. This city has increased more rapidly than any city in the world. In 1836, there was but one frame building on the site of Milwaukee, and only one white family residing in this section of the country.

In 1838,	the population was	800
1840,	"	1,751
1842,	"	2,700
1846,	"	9,655
1847,	"	14,061
1849,	"	18,000
1850,	"	20,061

And at the present time the population is at least 25,000.

Liberal charters for various rail-roads, terminating at Milwaukee, have been granted by the legislature of Wisconsin. The Milwaukee and Mississippi Rail-road Company have already completed their road to Whitewater, (50 miles,) and expect, by the first of January, 1853, to have it completed as far as Madison, the capital of the state, (80 miles.) The western terminus has not yet been determined, but it is generally supposed that Prairie du Chien will be selected as the most eligible point.

That this road will find business enough to keep it fully employed cannot be doubted, when the capabilities of Wisconsin, for its agricultural as well as its mineral productions, are considered, together with Iowa, Minnesota, and Nebraska, as tributaries. In looking back for ten or fifteen years at the advance made in the facilities for travel and transportation, it requires no great stretch of the imagination to foresee the time when a chain of railway will extend to the shores of the Pacific, and that this road will be one of the connecting links in that thoroughfare of the world.

A charter has also been granted for a rail-road from Milwaukee to Prairie La Crosse, on the Mississippi River; another from Milwaukee to Fond du Lac, on Lake Winnebago; and still another from Milwaukee to Chicago, in the state of Illinois. The city has, by a vote recently taken, loaned her credit for a term of years, for the purpose of aiding in the construction of the last named road, (called the "Lake Shore Rail-road.") In two years' time, it is anticipated this road will be completed, when Milwaukee will be in direct communication with New-York, by rail-road.

At the head of navigation of the Milwaukee River, (which runs through the centre of the city, north and south,) a dam has been built, which raises the water about twelve feet, thereby causing a slack water navigation, extending to the village of Humboldt, some three miles north. A canal of one and a quarter miles long brings this water into town, on the west side of the river, and creates a water-power equal to about one hundred runs of stone. The mills and factories on this canal have the advantage of being located on the immediate bank of the river, and may be approached by the largest class steamers navigating the lakes.

Wisconsin is a grain-producing state, notwithstanding the much-talked-of failure of the wheat crop in the years '49, '50 and '51. The partial failure of this crop during the years just mentioned, has proved a benefit rather than a detriment to the state, causing farmers to turn their attention to a variety of crops, and not to rely entirely on wheat, as they had been in the habit of doing. Considerable attention has been attracted to flax, and large quantities have been raised during the last two years. A farmer at Mukwonago, Waukesha county, has, for a number of years, devoted his time to the cultivation of this article, and with gratifying success. Tobacco is also grown in this state, but whether Wisconsin farmers will be able to compete with their brethren of Maryland and Virginia, is a matter of experiment.

The statistics of four of the counties in eastern Wisconsin, for the year 1850, are as follows:

	Population	No. Acres cleared	No. Farms	Bushels Wheat
Milwaukee	30,077	32,623	985	60,096
Waukesha	19,174	104.439	1,703	331,156
Racine	14,973	64,338	971	281,149
Kenosha	10,732	50,938	914	318,051

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With the above population, these four counties had for exportation not less than 500,000 bushels of wheat, being an average of a little upwards of 110 bushels for each farm—which at 50 cents per bushel would be $250,000. There are other grains, such as rye, Indian corn, oats and barley, which swell the aggregate of small grains to quite a large amount. The quantity of flax raised in these counties for the same year was 58,304 pounds.

Whilst it is generally supposed that the farmers of Wisconsin have been turning their attention almost exclusively to grain, it is gratifying to state that other branches have occupied their attention, the most important of which is that of raising wool.

In these counties, according to the census returns, we find the number of sheep and quantity of wool as follows:

	Sheep	Lbs. of Wool
Milwaukee	4,356	8,330
Waukesha	12,430	26,042
Racine	10,093	20,223
Kenosha	12,767	33,439

During the year 1851, a large number of sheep was brought into Wisconsin from Ohio and Michigan. The amount of wool therefore produced in the above-mentioned counties during the present year will no doubt reach 175,000 lbs. Within four years, the united products of these four counties will not be less than 600,000 lbs. of wool, and will doubtless bring an amount equal to the sum which will then be received for their now greatest staple. These united in the year 1855 will yield not less than half a million of dollars, and nearly double this sum would be realized if the domestic interests were only fostered by the government.

The products of these counties may be taken as a fair basis, in order to form an estimate for the balance of the state. Taking only the 20,000 farms—as reported by the census returns of 1850—as under cultivation, the amount realized by farmers on wool and wheat would be $2,300,000 at present prices.

For the following statement of the imports and exports of the eastern district of Wisconsin—comprising the ports of Milwaukee, Racine, Kenosha, Sheboygan, Port Washington and Manitouwoc—we are indebted to ALLEN W. HATCH, Esq., the efficient collector of the port:

MILWAUKEE—JANUARY, 1851-1852.

Imports.

Merchandise, tons	23,080
Sundries, bbls. bulk	39,697
Salt, bags	24,535
Salt, bbls.	24,364
Fruit, bbls.	10,372
Fish, bbls	849
Lumber, sawed	26,184,322
Lath	4,368,500
Shingles	12,953,750
Cedar Posts	10,367
High Wines and Whisky, bbls.	4,078
Coal	1,515
Water Lime and Plaster, bbls	1,484
Cut Stone, tons	250
Cheese, lbs	124,240
Tan Bark, cords	1,275
Rail-road Iron, tons	556
Pig Iron,	357
Locomotives	4
Fruit Trees	11,150
Potters' Clay, tons	150

Exports.

Flour, bbls	113,223
Pork, bbls	3,832
Beef, bbls	2,331
Wheat, bushels	181,904
Oats, bushels	47,093
Barley, bushels	175,723
Corn, bushels	22,233
Wool, lbs	226,256
Hides, lbs.	385,840
Ashes, tons	262
Lard, lbs.	29,120
Broom Corn, tons	843
Merchandise, tons	741
Sundries, bbls. bulk	22,996
Lead, lbs.	987,840
Lime, bbls	2,500
Brick	353,000

RACINE.

Imports.

Merchandise, tons	1,916
Sundries. bbls. bulk	5,857
Salt, bags	4,000
Salt, bbls.	6,734
Fruit, bbls.	4,004
Fish, bbls.	300
Lumber, sawed	10,500,000
Shingles	3,600,000
High Wines and Whisky, bbls	733
Coal, tons	463
Pig Iron, tons	117
Water Lime and Plaster, bbls.	500
Cut Stone, tons	100
Cheese. lbs	21,000
Tan Bark, cords	100

Exports.

Flour, bbls	22,977
Pork. bbls.	1,112
Beef, bbls.	1.712
Wheat, bushels	272,678
Oats, bushels	80,893
Barley, bushels	40.908
Corn, bushels	18,941
Wool, lbs	106,471
Hides. lbs.	112,000
Ashes, tons	55
Lard, lbs.	22,400
Merchandise, tons	448
Sundries, bbls. bulk	7,277
Hay, tons	250
Ship Knees	279

KENOSHA.

Imports.

Merchandise, tons	1,552
Sundries, bbls. bulk	7,522

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Salt, bags	3,150
Salt, bbls	2,933
Fruit, bbls	2,141
Fish, bbls	59
Lumber, sawed	3,716,817
Lath	187,900
Shingles	168,290
Cedar Posts	2,421
High Wines and Whisky, bbls	686
Coal, tons	161
Water Lime and Plaster, bbls	245
Pig Iron, tons	4

Exports.

Flour, bbls	2,652
Pork, bbls	56
Wheat, bushels	233,052
Oats, bushels	59,769
Barley, bushels	55,196
Corn, bushels	31,168
Wool, lbs	30,731
Hides, lbs	20,160
Merchandise	273
Sundries, bbls. bulk	5,045

SHEBOYGAN.

Imports.

Merchandise, tons	2,446
Sundries, bbls. bulk	1,262
Salt, bags	300
Salt, bbls	650
Fruit, bbls	500
High Wines and Whisky, bbls	20
Coal, tons	38
Pig Iron, tons	30
Water Lime and Plaster, bbls	100

Exports.

Flour, bbls	163
Fish, bbls	3,384
Oats, bushels	3,650
Barley, bushels	1,000
Wool, lbs	9,250
Hides, lbs	69,440
Ashes, tons	201
Sundries, bbls. bulk	934
Merchandise, tons	73
Lumber	1,833,800
Lath	247,000
Shingles	1,199,000

PORT WASHINGTON.

Imports

Merchandise, tons	1,600
Sundries, bbls. bulk	1,500
Salt, bbls	200
Fruit, bbls	500
High Wines and Whisky, bbls	1,000

Exports.

Flour, bbls	3,000
Fish, bbls	200
Oats, bushels	2,000
Barley, bushels	1,500
Ashes, tons	900
Brick	500,000
Wood, cords	10,000
Staves	200,000
Hops, tons	10
Hoop Poles	50,000
Potatoes, bushels	25,000

MANITOUWOC.

Imports.

Flour, bbls	661
Pork, bbls	437
Beef, bbls	74
Meal, bbls	558
Salt, bbls	855
Vinegar, bbls	65
Butter, firkins	120
Lard, lbs	7,800
Fresh Pork, lbs	15,400
Mutton Hams, lbs	7,000
Beans, bush	136
Water Lime and Plaster, bbls	130
Merchandise, tons	395

Exports.

Lumber	4,825,000
Lath	855,000
Pickets	275,000
Shingles	15,467,000
Cedar Posts	8,700
Shingle Bolts, cords	750
Wood, cords	1,750
Tan Bark, cords	75
Square Timber	8,000
White Fish, bbls	1,190
Cranberries, bbls	36
Potash, tons	3
Black Salts, tons	3
Maple Sugar, lbs	2,500

TOTAL IMPORTS AND EXPORTS FOR THE YEAR 1852.

Imports.

Merchandise, tons	30,989
Sundries, bbls, bulk	55,838
Salt, bags	31,985
Salt, bbls	35,736
Fruit, bbls	17,517
Fish, bbls	1,208
Lumber, sawed	40,401,139
Lath	4,556,400
Shingles	13,125,640
Cedar Posts	12,788
High Wines and Whisky, bbls	6,517
Coal, tons	2,177
Pig Iron, tons	508
Water Lime and Plaster, bbls	2,459
Cut Stone, tons	350
Cheese, lbs	123,000
Tan Bark, cords	1,375
Rail-road Iron, tons	556
Locomotives	4
Potters' Clay, tons	72
Fruit Trees	11,150

Exports.

Flour, bbls	142,015
Pork, bbls	5,000
Beef, bbls	4,043
Fish, bbls	4,774
Wheat, bush	687,634
Oats, bush	193,405
Barley, bush	274,327
Corn, bush	72,342
Wool, lbs	372,708
Hides, lbs	504,500
Ashes, tons	1,418
Lard, lbs	46,000
Broom Corn, tons	843
Merchandise, tons	1,535
Lead, tons	987,840
Lime, bbls	2,500
Brick	853,000
Hay, tons	250
Ship Knees	279
Lumber	6,658,800
Lath	1,102,000
Shingles	16,666,000
Wood, cords	11,750
Staves	200,000
Hops, tons	10
Hoop Poles	50,000
Potatoes, bush	25,000
Sundries, bbls. bulk	36,150

The valuation of the exports from the eastern district of Wisconsin, for the year 1851, is... $2,156,182 10

Loss to the district by partial or total wreck, from the year 1839 to 1851 inclusive $312,150 00

Tonnage of the district 6,526

Seamen employed 325

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The following statistics of the exports from the state bordering on the Mississippi, we extract from the speech of Hon. Otis Hoyt, in the Assembly of 1852:

There are on the Mississippi River, above the mouth of the St. Croix River, engaged in cutting logs, eleven saws—cutting 15,000,000 feet of sawed lumber annually, at $10 per thousand feet	$150,000
10,000,000 feet of logs	50,000
On the St. Croix River, there are seventeen saws—cutting 26,000,000 feet, at $10	260,000
22,000,000 logs, at $5	110,000
Square timber, lath, &c	10,000
The Chippewa River yields 20,000,000 feet of lumber, at $10	200,000
1,000,000 feet of logs, at $5	20,000
Square timber, lath, shingles, &c	5,000
The Black River yields 15,000,000 feet of lumber, at $10	150,000
Logs, square timber, lath, shingles, &c	15,000
Furs and peltries from the whole region	200,000
The whole amount of exports from this part of the state, is estimated at	1,170,000

In concluding this article, we would say, that the undeveloped resources of Wisconsin have attracted the attention of capitalists and scientific men. The extent of her territory, and the fertility of the soil, ready, by the alternations of prairie and timber, for the labor of the husbandman, bid fair to make this one of the first agricultural states in the Union.

Internal improvements are needed to bring into communication with the markets the interior counties; but all the lake shore on the east, and the river counties on the west, enjoy the best natural facilities for easy access to the east and south, affording promise of great agricultural and commercial prosperity. Perhaps no state can enjoy so many advantages at so little expense.

The towns in the interior are destined to a rapid growth, for the rail-road system will give to them nearly all the advantages heretofore enjoyed by the river and lake towns, and the farmers in every part of the state will have, at their own doors, a ready market for their surplus products. It only remains an open question whether manufactures may be successfully introduced, so as to augment the resources and quicken into greater activity other industrial pursuits. It has been said that Wisconsin cannot become a manufacturing state, because there are no extensive coal beds to furnish motive power; but whether manufactures are dependent upon the supply and cost of coal, and whether wood and water may not afford a sufficient and economical substitute, are questions yet to be solved.

The construction of canals in the older states a few years ago increased the manufacturing facilities by furnishing a large water-power; and why may not Wisconsin, which abounds in natural water-falls and rapid streams, turn them to advantage to increase her resources and benefit her sons?

ART. III.—FREE BANKING.

PART III.

THE use of state or government stocks as securities for a paper currency, involves the most important considerations. It opens up all the questions touching a public debt, to which we must in due course direct our attention.

Our first proposition is, that the credit of a state is no fit foundation for a paper currency. The stocks of a state are only its promissory notes.

Upon these, as securities, free banking bases a lower order or stratum of promissory notes, viz.: the notes or paper promises of banks, and again, for these are exchanged the notes or promises of private persons—thus giving us a descending series of credits, from the people as a government, to the people as individuals. The result of such a scheme is obvious and irresistible.

The whole fabric of the currency being built on credit accumulated on credit, the edifice gradually expands and enlarges, and finally becomes so large and overtowering, that it is borne down almost by its own superincumbent weight, crushing the whole community beneath its ruins. No prudent merchant would knowingly extend his confidence to the country dealer whose whole resources were built on similar frail foundations. He would feel that he was recklessly careless to sell out his property to individuals whose credit was built on the

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credit of a class of other individuals, who in turn obtained their credit from some other and still more distant individuals, whose own wealth, in fine, was but a mere credit itself.

To say nothing of the frailty of such a foundation for a currency, what must be the effect of the scheme on the whole system of values? Is it not plain that such a multiplication and overriding of credit on credit gives the whole paper money system an accelerated and accumulated energy, which grows with its every impulse. It is the elastic ball, whose velocity increases with every rebound, until the rapidity of its speed baffles the skill of those who set it in motion. Once started, the expansive system can never stop, but must go on increasing in power. Bear with us a moment, while we recall a few incidents in the history of our currency. During our Revolutionary struggle the Continental Congress issued about three hundred millions of paper money, in the shape of bills of credit, and such was the untoward result of that action, that in 1787 every precaution was taken to guard against the occurrence of such evils. "Now," said Oliver Ellsworth, "is the favorable moment to shut and bar the door against paper money." The states were positively prohibited by the constitution from making anything but gold and silver a legal tender, and the federal government was denied the power of emitting bills of credit or establishing a national bank. To make their opinions still more explicit, the hard money men of 1789, in the very first revenue act of Congress, prohibited the payment of revenue dues and duties with anything but gold and silver. It was not long, however, before the ingenuity of interest overleaped all such restrictions. The convulsions of 1819, 1825 and 1837, each and singular, attest the rapid growth of our banking system. The most memorable of those revulsions was that of 1837. During the three preceding years our banking capital had increased ninety-one millions, and our banking circulation fifty-four millions. The loans rose from three hundred and twenty-five to five hundred and twenty-five millions, being an average annual expansion of about fifty millions of dollars. The effect of this inflation of credit was instantaneous and tremendous. Men who had laughed at the insane bubbles of the Mississippi and South Sea speculations, now found themselves in the vortex of an excitement well nigh as maddening. We need not detail the result of that excitement. The recoil is yet fresh in our minds. He who was the millionaire and capitalist of the spring-tide had hardly wherewith to get a breakfast in the succeeding winter, even though his pockets were crammed with thousands in bank paper. But it was not the millionaire alone or mostly who suffered by that panic. The laborer was the man upon whom that blighting bank revulsion fell most terribly. Well might it be said of all such paper manias, "that they are the most effectual of all the inventions to fertilize the rich man's field with the sweat of the poor man's brow. Ordinary tyranny, oppression and taxation—these bear lightly on the happiness of the community, compared with fraudulent currencies and the robberies committed by depreciated paper."

And now, if our state government do not adopt prompt measures to arrest the further increase of our paper currency, the scenes of 1837 will again be repeated. Then the currency rose to the enormous amount of one hundred and forty-nine millions. From this excessive expansion it sank in 1843 to fifty-eight millions, and in 1847 rose to one hundred and five millions, and now, in 1852, it has attained the height of one hundred and sixty millions. And this, too, at a time when a tide of gold is setting in from every shore, and when the receipts of coin from California have in the aggregate reached two hundred millions.

What stability can there be in the value of property or contracts? What steady employment can labor expect, when the artificial standard by which property contracts and labor are measured, is thus constantly and violently fluctuating? In other words, when your currency is periodically depreciated by an over-issue of paper.

We deride and contemn the mean artifice of those monarchs who debased their coin and unsettled the standard of value in use among their own people. And yet this very thing we contemn—this monstrous power to violate all contracts and prostrate labor, has been bestowed by the legislatures of republican government on moneyed corporations.

Government dare not debase its coin, but banks are invested with the sovereign power to depreciate the currency at will. And as if to encourage them to perpetu-

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ate the abuse, they are permitted to levy a tax, in the shape of discounts and interests, on this enormous and expanded circulation of $160,000,000.

Now, while banks have this power, without limitation, the requiring of security for the circulation, to protect the bill-holder, is a mere mockery; for we may anticipate a succession of expansions and contractions of the currency, overthrowing all credit, and prostrating every branch of industry.

Free banking is one thing—free trade in the manufacture of paper-money is a very different affair. Free trade in the issue of paper-money has never succeeded any where. The more free the manufacture of paper-money, the more it is enlarged, and as the amount increases, the danger of revulsions becomes more imminent. It is true there cannot be an indefinite expansion of a currency which is convertible into coin. The liability of the paper to be returned home for coin tends, we know, to keep it at the same average. Nevertheless, the vibrations of an elastic currency are sometimes considerable before the check of the law of supply and demand can operate. Other causes may tend to sustain exchange, and thus to maintain an inflated paper issue. In 1837 we saw those causes at work, and the expansion reached an increase of nearly fifty per cent. on the whole amount of the currency, which was followed by contractions to less than the former circulation.

Whilst we are busy in providing, lest a man should lose a one-dollar note, we have made no provision against a fluctuation which changes the value of his property one-half, reduces a claim he may have to receive one-half, or doubles the debt he may have to pay. The remedy of this evil has received too little attention from our modern legislators; and yet, it is of the first importance in a sound banking system, and should at once control our legislation.

No banking statutes should be sanctioned which do not limit, by some fixed and proper standard, the extent of our paper circulation. This is the grievous evil, to the removal of which Ricardo addressed his clear and able intellect, and which finally resulted in the famous Bullion Act of Sir Robert Peel.

It is therefore plain, that stocks in themselves are no proper securities against an inflated currency.

The practical operation of the system is obvious. First come the issues of state stocks, created by the contraction of debts exceeding the revenue. Upon these are built the banks; the credit of the state being converted into a sort of reservoir, from which the faint and exhausted credit of individuals is refreshed and renewed. Speculation, which the previous want of capital so strongly prohibited, now springs up with an unnatural and redoubled power. The credit extended by the bank to its friends spreads through every ramification of commerce, enhancing nominal values, and giving large profits to the bold and daring adventurer. Prudent men are at length caught in the tide, and larger obligations and greater debts are contracted. Finally, however, pay-day will come round, as come it must. The note-payers find their means locked up in their speculations. Their profits are still too small to realize, and new loans must be contracted. The banks soon find themselves immeasurably expanded. Money becomes a little scarce, and there is a cry for more banks and more paper money. To establish new banks, new public debts and new stocks must be created. The old stocks have been absorbed, and the demand for them has carried their value to an inflated and fictitious height. The idea of large premiums on six per cent. loans soon fascinates the legislature, and new improvements are devised, and new debts contracted. Extravagant schemes are projected, and great systems of railways and canals are set on foot. Thus it is that a huge debt is created, an expanded currency created, and heavy taxation originated, which must ultimately result in pecuniary disaster of the severest character.

Let us look at New-York and see if we have not here sketched the outline of her recent banking career. In the convention of 1846, her finances were the subject of grave and anxious debate. In the records of that convention, the reports and speeches of Hoffman, Cambreleng, Chatfield and others, all bear on two great subjects—the public debt and the currency. They were, in fact, the great objects which the convention had assembled to arrange. After a most searching discussion, the able views of Mr. Hoffman were adopted. He contended that the state debt should be paid at the earliest moment, and with the least possible charge of interest. "If we want," said he, "a great charnel-house of pauperism, go on with these debts and taxation. Go

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on and borrow money to squander it all over the state again in internal improvements. * * * It was the accursed power of taxation which made pauperism, produced crime, misery and distress in all countries, and he looked to his children as a parent, when he said that he desired not to see their limbs fettered, or their bodies withered, by any accursed debtor system, by whomsoever begun."

In accordance with such ideas, the VIIth article of the New-York Constitution was adopted by a large vote. That article contemplated the entire payment of the state debt by the year 1862, and positively prohibited the Legislature from contracting any debt, except in the extraordinary events of war, invasion, &c., unless the law authorizing such debt at the same moment provided for its liquidation, in 18 years, by direct annual taxation. And, as if to guard still further against abuse, all such laws were required to receive the sanction of a direct vote of the people. With these restraints and checks, it was hoped that that great state would avoid all the calamities of an enormous public debt. But alas! the same convention which adopted these restraints, also adopted the free banking clause, making the stocks of the state the basis and security of the currency. The same instrument which prohibited the creation of a new debt, made it the interest of the all potent moneyed power to have an unending and illimitable state debt.

What was the consequence? Why, state stocks soon got scarce and high. New banks were wanted, and bankers began to seek new sources of security.

Only six years after the adjournment of the convention a large majority of the legislature passed the Canal Enlargement Bill—an act which, violating the spirit and letter of the VIIth article of the Constitution, creates a new debt of $7,000,000, and authorizes banking on deposit of the scrip or certificates of the debt. It is true that an enlightened judiciary decided the bill unconstitutional, but the machinery of party has been brought to bear on the subject, and the VIIth article has been evaded, and the bill will now succeed, and the labors of the convention to free the state from "the accursed debtor system," be utterly and forever lost.

Now, what is true of New-York will be ten-fold more true of Louisiana. If we have free banking, we will have an inflated currency and an endless public debt. And will the pay-day never come round? Are these "Dædalian wings" of paper money always to bear us aloft? These stocks must one day be paid or renewed. Interest on interest will accumulate. In seventeen years the debt will be doubled. Taxation must grow oppressive, and the wages of labor, the rewards of agriculture, and the returns of commerce will dwindle and droop. Speculation will cease and "hard times" will become household words. Once stricken with panic the whole fabric of credit will totter, and the flimsy free banks, whose foundations are paper, will fall around us

"Thick as autumnal leaves that strew the banks
In Valombrosa."

There is really no limit to the system, but its own destruction. Its great curse is its constant tendency to excess. What then is worse adapted to the peculiar exigencies of Louisiana than such a plan? It has no merit for our state, whose greatest aim should be to set her currency and credit on the soundest basis, so that foreign capital will be invited to us, and thus the limited means, now possessed, be left free to the pursuit of more active enterprise and commerce. And here we will say—because it is true for us, as it is true for all—that no scheme of finance—no new plan of getting rich fast—no quick road to prosperity, will avail us aught. There is one way and only one, and that is stern and rigid economy—economy personal, municipal and state. These royal roads to wealth will always lead to the slough of despond. Let us get up from our apathy—call not on Hercules—but help ourselves, in the only way, by which true men ever help themselves—economy, perseverance and industry. These are better than all the captivating schemes of finance. Without them neither banks nor credits can help us.

The history of free banking in New-York demonstrates not merely that a public debt is necessary to the existence of the institution, but also and principally demonstrates that free banking generates a tendency to create debt and to indulge in unwise and extravagant improvements. Where it exists, all conservative and restraining tendencies (which are feeble enough at best) are taken from the legislature, and a proclivity is engendered to borrow money and saddle posterity with a load of debt, from which

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they may never recover. For free banking is but a temporary policy, unless the state is always in debt. It has its existence only as long as the debt shall last, and however remote may be the day of our deliverance from such a burden, we certainly ought not to build our monetary system on a basis so temporary that in a few years more we may be called on to remodel it entirely, because there are no longer public debts or stocks to build it on. Either the one or the other alternative will occur—that the use of stocks for banking will breed a system of extravagance, which will plunge us into the most desperate calamity, or that if our legislature wisely resist all the influences of a potent moneyed power and constantly curtail the debt and pay off the interest and principal, that then, sooner or later, free banks must themselves stop; and thus the country be thrown back to the starting point and be forced to adopt some new system, which will establish the currency and secure the public.

So that, take it at best, free banking is but a scheme for to-day, and can never be looked to as "a final settlement of all the questions" pertaining to the currency. How much better then would it be to start some other plan which could stand every change, and not depend on the ever-shifting and changeful policy that may prevail in our state. But perhaps some will contend that no conceivable period can occur when the state or federal government will be out of debt, and that it is not moreover desirable to hasten such an event.

The peculiar condition of Great Britain has of late years drawn great attention to the general subject of a public debt. It is now urged that a national debt is an essential element in modern civilized states, affording convenient investments for the widow, orphan and learned professions, and furthermore, securing by the tie of interest, direct and personal, the devotion of the citizen to good order and strong government. How far this may be true of Great Britain it is not necessary to discuss. Two things are clear: first, that the stocks of judiciously managed railways and canals afford quite as good a security for investments as many of our state stocks; and secondly, that a government which has to preserve itself from rebellion and riot by the timidity and caution of its citizen creditors, is not fit for the dissemination and development of republican principles. Bad enough is it when a perpetual debt is entailed on a people by an extravagant and dissolute ancestry; but grievous and accursed is such a debt when it chains the people down to bad laws and bad government, which they dare not disturb lest they be impoverished in the agitation they create. Long distant be the day when our government is upheld by such considerations. Its true foundation is in the affections of the people, not in their fear. A national debt is a national evil—sometimes necessary, but always to be avoided if possible. It were better, often, nay, most of the time, that the government should raise the required funds within the year and by the cheapest system of taxes. The man of commerce may frequently do well to borrow money at interest. His occupation and his profits permit it; but a nation, except in case of war, &c., had far better raise her revenue by taxes than loans. When a government commences to borrow she is first to pay her brokers and agents, and then year after year an accumulation of interest.* That interest is an annual tax on labor, which makes the bread of the poor man bitter with the ill-paid sweat of his brow. Let us beware, then, how we build up a currency on so dangerous a basis—dangerous, not because it is insecure, but doubly, trebly dangerous, because of its tempting premiums, which gild the bitter pill of debt, and make us put off the day of redemption to "a more convenient season."

And do the people know the cost of a public debt? If not, let them hear the words of wisdom:

"Taxes upon every article that enters into the mouth, or covers the back, or is placed under the foot; taxes upon everything which it is pleasant to see, hear, feel, smell or taste; taxes upon warmth, light and locomotion; taxes on everything on earth and the waters under the earth; taxes on the sauce which pampers man's appetite and the drug which restores him to health; taxes on the ermine which decorates the judge and the rope which hangs the criminal; on the poor man's salt and the rich man's spice; on the brass nails of the coffin and the ribbons of the bride; at bed or board, couchant or levant, we must pay."†

* We learn that the late loan of $2,000,000, effected by the city of New-Orleans, cost her, for negotiating it, the round sum of $20,000.

† Sidney Smith to Brother Jonathan.

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Debt, filth and sin have been termed the great enemies of man; and well does debt deserve its bad pre-eminence, when even to England, whose life seems well nigh immortal, and whose resources have been as exhaustless and whose vigor as fresh as if she were gifted with perennial and unfailing youth — when even she, with all her untold energy and noble people, has sunk under its withering and prostrating power.

Unless suggested by necessity and controlled by prudence; unless administered with economy and followed by frugality, borrowing is to nations as well as to individuals the high road to ruin.

It is the ease of borrowing, compared with the difficulty of paying; the natural disposition to get a present command of money, and leave the task of paying it off to posterity, which is the temptation that so often proves irresistible. There is, moreover, this extraordinary and peculiar danger in the lavish contraction of debt by a government, that by the present great expenditure with which it is attended, a very great impulse is communicated at the time to every branch of industry, and thus immediate prosperity is generated out of the source of ultimate ruin.

But if this feverish and inflated prosperity is created by the mere contraction and spending of loans, what must be its still greater increase, when those loans are made the basis of our currency, and when every dollar of loan sets into circulation another dollar of paper, which in its turn sets in motion the whole expanding and extending machinery of banking credits!

Under the combined influence of a vast contraction and disbursement of loans and an extensive paper circulation, the resources of the nation will *seem* to be increased in a rapid and unparalleled progression. Prices will advance, profits will grow higher, and all who make trade their pursuit will find themselves in a state of amazing prosperity. But is this prosperity real? Do they not know that "these floods of wealth are obtained by exhausting the reservoirs of future affluence, and that a long period of depression and languor must follow this feverish and unnatural tract of excitement."* It was just such prosperity as this which waited on England during all her contests with Napoleon. During the whirl and excitement of that war, her commerce was flourishing, her finances well ordered, and her manufactories reaping a golden harvest. But when the war and its excitements were over, and the interest on the debt grew onerous, how deplorable was her condition? Her commerce was paralyzed, her manufactories were closed, and posterity was bequeathed an heir-loom of debt, which now crushes the hopes of her most ardent sons.

And yet this mountain of debt reared its head less than two centuries ago. Like the small vapor of the fairy tale, it has gradually swelled forth and up into its present huge and giant-like proportions, standing ready to crush all beneath and around it.

Let us take heed, then, how we, even indirectly, encourage a public debt. In itself a curse, it will be doubly so, if we make it the basis of our currency.

No trivial objection to free banking, is the intimate connection it begets between the government and the banks. All the evils of a United States Bank, with few of its benefits, are attendant on the system.

The action of a government must be strongly affected by her system of finances. Whatever class of her people holds her debt, will exercise an overwhelming influence in shaping her policy. Talk as we may, if banks become the creditors of government, either the one or the other will rule. Wherever such a relation has existed, corruption has been rife, and in the end both the people and the bank have been injured.

Ten years ago "Divorce of Bank and State" was the catch-word of party. However it may be forgotten, the reasons for such a divorce are as potent now as ever.

In our next we will adduce some facts which are developed by the practical working of free banking, and which lead us to still further condemn the system.

* Alison's Europe.

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ART. IV.—SOUTHERN AGRICULTURAL EXHAUSTION AND ITS REMEDY.*

THE great error of southern agriculture is the general practice of exhausting culture—the almost universal deterioration of the productive power of the soil—which power is the main and essential foundation of all agricultural wealth. The merchant or manufacturer, who was using (without replacing) any part of his capital to swell his early income—or the ship-owner, who used as profit all his receipts from freights, allowing nothing for repairs or deterioration of capital—would be accounted by all as in the sure road to bankruptcy. The joint-stock company that should (in good faith, as many have done by designed fraud) annually pay out something of what ought to be its reserved fund, or of its actual capital, to add so much to the dividends, would soon reach the point of being obliged to reduce the dividends below the original fair rate, and, in enough time, all the capital would be so absorbed. Yet this unprofitable procedure, which would be deemed the most marvelous folly in regard to any other kind of capital invested, is precisely that which is still generally pursued by the cultivators of the soil in all the cotton-producing states, and which prevailed as generally, and much longer in my own country, and which, even now, is more usual there than the opposite course of fertilizing culture. The recuperative powers of nature are indeed continually operating, and to great effect, to repair the waste of fertility caused by the destructive industry of man, and but for this natural and imperfect remedy, all these southern states (and most of the northern likewise) would be already barren deserts, in which agricultural labors would be hopeless of reward, and civilized men could not exist.

Let me not be understood as extending censure to all southern agriculture, and charging this great defect as being universal. It is truly very general—but there are numerous exceptions, of which it is not my purpose to treat. My present business is with errors and defects of southern agriculture, and with its points of admitted excellence—as, for example, the elaborate system of rice culture, and, for other tillage, the very general and commendable attention paid to the collection of materials for putrescent manures. Nothing has appeared to me more remarkable in the agriculture of this region than the close neighborhood, (often, indeed, seen on the same property,) of the best husbandry in some respects, and almost the worst in most others.

The great error of exhausting the fertility of the soil is not peculiar to cotton culture, or to the southern states. It belongs, from necessity, to the agriculture of every newly-settled country, and especially where the land, before being brought under tillage, was in the forest state. When first settled upon, forest land costs almost nothing, and labor is scarce and dear. Even if labor is more abundant, it still will be long before enough land can be cleared to allow changes of culture and rest to the fields; and for some years after each new clearing, it would be even beneficial to continue the tillage of corn, tobacco, or cotton, so as effectually to kill all remains of the forest growth. But as soon as enough land can be brought under culture, and has been put in clean condition, so as to allow space for change of crops and due respite from continual tillage, the previous exhausting course will no longer be best even for early profit. Even in a new country, while land is yet fertile, it is cheaper to preserve that fertility from any exhaustion, than it is to reduce it considerably. And in an older agricultural country, like South Carolina, having abundant resources in marl and lime for improving fertility, it would be much cheaper, and more profitable, to improve an acre of before exhausted land, than it is to clear and bring under culture an acre of ordinary land from the forest state, allowing that both pieces are to be brought to the same power and rate of production.

New settlers are not censurable for beginning this exhausting culture. But they and their successors are not the less

* This interesting paper was read by Edwin Ruffin, Esq., of Virginia, the justly celebrated American agriculturist, at the late Fair of the South Carolina Institute, in Charleston, S. C., which we had the pleasure of attending. The author has kindly furnished us a corrected copy, which we hasten to lay before our readers, omitting only the introductory portions, which are of local or personal character.

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condemnable for continuing it after the circumstances which justified it have ceased. The system was first begun in Eastern Virginia, because it was the first settled part of the present United States, and it continued to prevail almost universally until since the course of my adult life began; and only has partially ceased since, because the country was nearly reduced to barrenness, and the proprietors to ruin. From this erroneous policy so long pursued in Virginia, and the manifest and well-known disastrous results in the general and seemingly desperate sterility of the older-settled portion of the state, the younger southern states might have taken warning, and have learned to profit by the woful and costly experience of others. But it seems that every agricultural community must and will run the same race of exhausting culture, and impoverishment of land and its cultivators, before being convinced of the propriety of commencing an opposite course—after the best means and facilities for making that beneficial change have been greatly impaired by the lapse of time, and progress of waste of fertility—if indeed these means are not then irretrievably forfeited.

If, at this time, the work of improvement, with the aid of marl and lime, were properly begun and prosecuted, there would be found here incalculable advantages over those of the pioneers in the like work in Virginia. These advantages would be, first: A tenfold better supply of far richer and cheaper marl than is found in Virginia. Second: Much more remaining organic matter, or original fertility of the soil, as yet unexhausted. Third: Full information to be obtained of the operations and opinions of thousands of experienced and successful marlers to refer to, of which advantage there was almost nothing existing thirty years ago. In South Carolina, more marling could now be done in a year, and in a proper manner, than was done in Virginia for the first twenty years; and, though judging merely by analogy, I infer that the benefit would not be less great in this region than in my own.

And now I will state, from unquestionable official documents, something of what has been effected in Virginia—not merely in cases of particular farms, and those entirely marled, which might show tripled or quadrupled products and market returns, and tenfold *intrinsic* value, compared to their former low condition—but cases showing the bearing of the comparatively few marled and limed farms on the aggregate assessed value of all the lands in Lower Virginia, and upon the receipts of land-tax from the same, although not one twentieth part of the whole tide-water district has yet been improved in fertility, or is the least better (and, probably, the great remainder is much poorer) than when the marling of other lands first began to raise the general average of assessed values throughout this whole district.

It appears, from the latest state assessment of lands in Virginia for 1850, that the actual increase of value in the tide-water district only, since 1838, the previous assessment, was more than seventeen millions of dollars. On this increase of valuation, and at the same rate of taxation, there is more than $17,000 increase of land-tax alone accruing annually to the state treasury. It is obvious that any increased value of lands, caused by their increased production, would necessarily require an increase of labor, and of farming stock, and would produce proportional increase of general wealth of the improvers, and would add other receipts from taxes in proportion—all serving still more to augment the public revenue.

The recent addition to the aggregate value of lands in Eastern Virginia, is admitted to be the effect of agricultural improvements; and that more than all the net increase is due to marling and liming only, would be equally evident, if I could here adduce the proofs, as I have done elsewhere.* Further—though 1838 was the date of the earliest assessment made after marling and liming had begun to increase aggregate production and value of lands, it is an unquestionable fact, that the general impoverishment had been greater, and values much lower, about 1828. And if this earlier time and greatest depression had been marked by an assessment then made, the full increased value of lands, from that time, would have appeared at least $30,000,000 in 1850, instead of seventeen and a quarter millions, counting from the already partially advanced improvement, and enhanced values of 1838. However, even if these, my deductions and estimates, go

* In a communication recently made to the State Agricultural Society of Virginia, on "Some of the Results of the Improvement of Lands, by Calcareous Manures, on Public Interests ih Virginia, in the increase of Production, Population, General Wealth, and Revenue to the Treasury."

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for nothing, there will still remain the proof, by official documents, of the actual increase of value of lands in twelve years, of seventeen and a quarter millions, or nearly one and a half millions yearly.

Now bear in mind that these are not the results of the improving of all the tide-water region, nor all of its much smaller arable portion; but, probably, of not more than one-twentieth of the cultivated land. All the remainder, if uncultivated, is stationary; and, if cultivated, is generally in a continued course of exhaustion; and the small quantity of enriched land had first to make up for all deficiencies of the impoverished, and lessening of production throughout the whole tide-water district, and after all such deductions, still exhibited a clear surplus of seventeen and a quarter millions of increased aggregate value. This is the result of but the beginning, and a very recent beginning of measures for improvement, executed in every case imperfectly, often injudiciously, and sometimes injuriously, and altogether on less than one-twentieth of the space on which calcareous manures are available. The great omitted space will hereafter be fertilized in the same manner. Then the actual increase of value of lands, founded on increased production, will be counted by hundreds of millions of dollars. And this anticipated enormous amount of fertility and capital to be created, might have been now in possession, if our improvements by calcareous manures had been begun thirty years earlier, instead of there having been continued, through all that time, the progress of wasting and destroying the remaining powers of the soil. South Carolina began exhausting culture much later, and is now full fifty years less advanced towards the lowest depth of that full descent which we had nearly completed. If that future of fifty years of continued exhaustion could be now cut off, and the improvement of Lower South Carolina by calcareous manures could be at once begun and continued, the loss of at least one hundred millions of dollars of now remaining value would be saved, and a gain of three hundred millions from improvement would be reached sooner by the same fifty years. This would be better, by all this great value, than even the following out precisely the first sinking and now rising course of Lower Virginia. In that region, the cultivators waited until the fertility of the land had so nearly expired, that it was supposed to be in *articulo mortis*—at the last gasp—before the work of resuscitation was begun.

The comparative results of the opposite systems of improving and exhausting cultivation may be thus illustrated: Suppose a certain investment of capital will yield twenty per cent. of present annual interest, or net products, and two persons invest equal amounts in the business. The more provident one draws or spends but fifteen per cent. annually of his income, and leaves the remaining five per cent. to accumulate, and to be added to his interest-bearing capital. The other proprietor draws each year, and spends all of the certain and annual average returns of his capital, and five per cent. more of the capital stock itself. He reasons (may I say it?) like many cotton planters, and infers that so small a detraction from his capital will do no harm, as he will have so much the more of quick returns for immediate use or re-investment. In less than twenty years, one of these individuals will have doubled his original capital, and also his twenty per cent. income, and the other will have exhausted his entire fund.

But it may be said, (as alleged in regard to the squanderers of fertility,) that as the latter person had received so much more of annual returns, at first, he might have re-invested, and thus have retained his over-draughts of annual products. If a planter — and, of course, his over-draughts had been from the fertility of his land—he might have bought another plantation, to work and to wear out in like manner. But even if so, wherein would be the gain? He would have had the disadvantages of a change of investment, of removal, and making a new settlement. But where one man would so save and re-invest his over-draughts from his capital, two others would use, or perhaps spend theirs, as if so much actual clear profit, or permanent income. When the land is utterly worn out, and the total capital of fertility wasted, (or the small remnant is incapable of paying the expense of further cultivation,) it will most generally be found that the channels into which the early full streams of income flowed, are then as dry as the sources.

I do not mean that it necessarily follows that the planter who exhausts his land, also lessens his general wealth. Would that it were so! For, then, such certain and immediate retribution would

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speedily stop the whole course of wrong-doing, and prevent all the consequent evils. It may be rarely, and it might be never the case, that the exhauster of land becomes absolutely poorer during the operation. He will have helped to impoverish his country, and to ruin it finally, (by the same general policy being continued,)—he will have destroyed as much of God's bounties as the wasted fertility, if remaining, would have supplied for ever, and as many human beings as those supplies would have supported, will be prevented from existing. And yet the mighty destroyer may have increased his own wealth. Nevertheless, he does not escape his own, and even the largest share of the general loss he has caused. While thus destroying, say $20,000 worth of fertility, the planter, by the exercise of industry, economy and talent in other departments of his business, or from other resources, may have grown richer, by $10,000. But if, as I believe is always true, it is as cheap and profitable to save as to waste fertility in the whole term of culture, then the planter in this case might have gained in all $30,000 of capital, if he had saved, instead of wasting, the original productive power of his land.

Even if admitting the common fallacy which prevails in every newly-settled country, that it is profitable to each individual cultivator to wear out his land, still, by his doing so, and all his fellow-proprietors doing the like, while each one might be adding to his individual wealth, the joint labors of all would be exhausting the common stock of wealth, and greatly impairing the common welfare and interest of all. The average life of a man is long enough to reduce the fertility of his cultivated land to one-half, or less. Thus, one generation of exhausting cultivators, if working together, would reduce their country to one-half of its former production, and, in proportion, would be reduced the general income, wealth, and means of living—population and the products of taxation—and, in time, would as much decline the measure of moral, intellectual, and social advantages, the political power and military strength of the commonwealth. The destructive operations of the exhausting cultivator have a most important influence far beyond his own lands and his own personal interests. He reduces the wealth and population of his country and the world, and obstructs the progress and benefits of education, the social virtues, and even moral and religious culture. For, upon the productions of the earth depend, more or less, the measure to be obtained, by the people of any country, of these and all other blessings which a community can enjoy. There is, however, one very numerous class of exceptions to this general rule—which is, when an agricultural people, or interest, is tributary to some other people or interest, whether foreign or at home. Such exceptions are presented in different modes: by the agriculture of Cuba being tributary to Spain—of many other countries to their own despotic and oppressive home governments—and of the Southern States of this confederacy, to greater or less extent, to different pauper and plundering interests of the northern states, which, through legislative enactments, have been mainly fostered and supported by levying tribute upon southern agriculture and industry.

The reason why such woful results of impoverishment of lands, as have been stated, are not seen to follow the causes, and speedily, is, that the causes are not all in action at once, and in equal progress. The labors of exhausting culture, also, are necessarily suspended as each of the cultivator's fields is successively worn out. And when tillage so ceases, and any space is thus left at rest, Nature immediately goes to work to recruit and replace as much as possible of the wasted fertility—until another destroyer, after many years, shall return, again to waste, and in much shorter time than before, the smaller stock of fertility so renewed. Thus, the whole territory, so scourged, is not destroyed at one operation. But though these changes and partial recoveries are continually, to some extent, counteracting the labors for destruction, still the latter work is in general progress. It may require, (as it did in my native region,) more than two hundred years, from the first settlement, to reach the lowest degradation. But that final result is not the less certainly to be produced by the continued action of the causes. I have witnessed, at home, nearly the last stage of decline. But I have also witnessed, subsequently, and over large spaces, more than the complete resuscitation of the land, and great improvement in almost every respect, not only to individual but to public interests; not only in regard to fertility and wealth, but also in mental, moral and social improvement.

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Inasmuch as my remarks would seem to ascribe the most exhausting system of cultivation especially to the slave-holding states, the enemies of the institution of slavery might cite my opinions, if without the explanation which will now be offered, as indicating that slave-labor and exhausting tillage were necessarily connected as cause and effect. I readily admit that our slave-labor has served greatly to facilitate our exhausting cultivation; but only because it is a great facility—far superior to any found in the non-slave-holding states—for all agricultural operations. Of course, if our operations are exhausting of fertility, then certainly our command of cheaper and more abundant labor enables us to do the work of exhaustion, as well as all other work, more rapidly and effectually. But if directed to improving, instead of destroying fertility, then this great and valuable aid of slave-labor will as much more advance improvement, as it has generally heretofore advanced exhaustion. The enunciation of this proposition is perhaps enough. But if any, from prejudice, should deny or doubt its truth, they may see the practical proofs on all the most improved and profitable farms of Lower and Middle Virginia. On the lands of our best improvers and farmers, such as Richard Sampson, Hill Carter, John A. Selden, William B. Harrison, Willoughby Newton, and many others, slave-labor is used not only exclusively, and in larger than usual proportion, (because more required on very productive land,) but is deemed indispensable to the greatest profits, and operating to produce more increase of fertility, and more agricultural profit than can be exhibited from any purely agricultural labors and capital north of Mason and Dixon's line.

There is another and stronger reason for the greater exhausting effects of southern agriculture, and therefore of tillage by slave-labor. The great crops of all the slave-holding states, and especially of the more southern—corn, tobacco and cotton—are all tilled crops. The frequent turning and loosening of the earth by the plow and hoe—and far more when continued without intermission, year after year—advance the decomposition and waste all organic matter, and expose the soil of all but the most level surfaces, to destructive washing by rains—and rains the more heavy and destructive in power, in proportion as approaching the south. The northern farmer is guarded from the worst of these results, not because he uses free-labor, but because his labor is so scarce and dear that he uses as little as possible for his purposes. Besides this consideration, his climate is more suitable to grass than to grain, and his other large crops are much more generally broad-cast than tilled. These are sufficient causes why, in general, the culture of land in the northern states should be less exhausting than in the southern, without detracting anything from the superior advantages which we of the South enjoy in the use of African slave-labor.

At the risk of uttering what may be deemed trite or superfluous to many of those who now honor me by their attention, I beg leave to state concisely the fundamental laws, as I conceive them to be, of supply and exhaustion of fertilizing matters to soils, and aliment to plants.

All vegetable growth is supported, for a small part, by the alimentary principles in the soil, (or by what we understand as its fertility,)—and partly, and for much the larger portion, by matters supplied, either directly or indirectly, from the atmosphere. More than nine-tenths usually of the substance of every plant is composed of the same four elements, three of which, oxygen, nitrogen and carbon, compose the whole atmosphere. The fourth, hydrogen, is one of the constituent parts of water; and also, as a part of the dissolved water, hydrogen is always present in the atmosphere, and in great quantity. Thus all these principal elements of plants are superabundant, and always surrounding every growing plant; and from the atmosphere, (or through the water in the soil,) very much the larger portion of these joint supplies is furnished to plants; and so it is of each particular element, except nitrogen, much the smallest ingredient, and yet the richest and most important of all organic manuring substances, and of all plants. This, for the greater part, if not for all of its small share in plants, it seems, is not generally derived, even partially, from the air, though so abundant therein, but from the soil or from organic manures given to the soil.

But, though bountiful nature has offered these chief alimentary principles and ingredients of vegetable growth in as inexhaustible profusion as the atmosphere itself which they compose, still their availability and beneficial use for plants are limited in some measure to man's

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labors and care to secure their benefits. Thus, for illustration, suppose the natural supplies of food for plants, furnished by the atmosphere, to be three-fourths of all received, and that one-fourth only of the growth of any crop is derived from the soil and its fertility. Still, a strict proportion between the amount of supplies from these two different sources does not the less exist. If the cultivator's land, at one time, from its natural or acquired fertility, affords to the growing crop alimentary principles of value to be designated as five, there will be added thereto other alimentary parts, equal to fifteen in value, from the atmosphere. The crop will be made up of, and will contain, the whole twenty parts; of which five only were derived from, and served to reduce, by so much, the fertility of the soil. These proportions are stated merely for illustration, and, of course, are inaccurate. But the theory or principle is correct; and the law of fertilization and exhaustion, thence deduced, is as certainly sound.

Then, upon these premises, there is taken from the land, for the support of the crop, but one-fourth of the aliment derived from all sources for that purpose. And, if no other causes of destruction of fertility were in operation, one green or manuring crop (wholly given to the land and wholly used as manure) would supply to the field as much of alimentary or fertilizing matter, as would be drawn thence by three other crops removed for consumption or sale. But in practice there *are* usually at work important agencies for destruction of fertility, besides the mere supply of aliment to growing crops. Such agencies are the washing off of soluble parts, and even the soil itself, by heavy rains—the hastening of decomposition and waste of organic matter by frequent tillage processes, and changes of exposure—and plowing or other working of land when too wet, either from rain or want of drainage. Also, a cover of weeds left to rot on the surface, or any crop plowed under, green or dry, as manure, is subject to more or less waste of its alimentary principles, in the course of the ensuing decomposition. Therefore it is nearer the facts that two years' crops, or culture, for market or removal, would require one year's growth of some manuring crop to replace, and to maintain undiminished, or increasing, the productive power of the field. The poorest and also the cheapest of such manuring crops will be the natural or "volunteer" growth of weeds on lands left uncultivated, and not grazed; and the best of all will be furnished in the whole product of a broadcast sown and entire crop of your own most fertilizing and valuable field peas.

Thus, of each manuring crop, (as of all others,) or of the fertilizing matter thus given to the land, the cultivator has contributed but five parts from the land, or its previous manuring, and the atmosphere has supplied fifteen parts. If, then, the cultivator, by still more increasing his own contributions, will give ten parts of alimentary matter to the land and crop, there will be added thereto from the atmosphere in the same three-fold proportion, or thirty parts, and the whole new productive power will be equal to forty. And if the soil is fitted by its natural constitution, or the artificial change induced by calcareous applications, to fix and retain this double supply of organic matter, the land will not only be made, but will remain, of as much increased fertility, under the subsequent like course of receiving one year's product for manure, for every two other crops removed. But, on the other hand, if more exhausting culture had been allowed, instead of either increased or maintained production—or if the crops take away more organic matter than nature's three-fold contributions will replace—then a downward progress must begin, and will proceed, whether slowly or quickly, to extreme poverty of the land, its profitless cultivation, and final abandonment. In this, the more usual case, the cultivator's contributions of aliment, (obtained from the soil,) are reduced from the former value, designated as five, first to four, and next successively to three, two, and finally less than one; and nature keeps equal pace in reducing her proportional supplies, from fifteen, first to twelve, and so on to nine and six, and less than three parts. So the strongest inducement is offered to enrich, rather than exhaust the soil. For whatever amount of fertility the cultivator shall bestow, or whatever abstraction from a previous rate of supply he shall make, either the gain or the loss will be tripled in the account of supplies from the atmosphere, furnished or withheld by nature.

In another and more practical point of view, the loss incurred by exhausting culture may be plainly exhibited. According to my views, (elsewhere fully

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stated,*) soils supposed to be properly constituted as to mineral ingredients, do not demand, for the maintaining and increasing of their rate of production, more than the resting or the growth of two years in every five, mainly to be left on the land as manure. These are the proportions of the five-field rotation, now extensively used on the most improving parts of Virginia. And one of these two years the field is grazed, so that parts of its growth of grass is consumed, instead of all remaining on the field for manure. To meet the same demands, the more southern planter might leave his field to be covered by its growth of weeds (or natural grasses) one year, (and also to be grazed,) and a broad-cast crop of pea-vines to be plowed under in another, for every three crops of grain and cotton. But the ready answer to this, (and I have heard it many times,) is, "What! lose two crops in every five years? *I* cannot afford to lose even one." It may be that the planter is so diligent and careful in collecting materials for prepared manure, that he can extend a thin and poor application, and in the drills only, over nearly half his cotton field; and perhaps he persuades himself that this application will obviate the necessity for rest and manuring crops to the land. The result will not fulfil this expectation. But even if it could, the manuring thus given directly by the labor of the planter is more costly than if he would allow time and opportunity for nature to help to manure for him—whether alone, or still better if aided by preparing for and sowing the native pea, to the production of which your climate is so eminently favorable. All the accumulations of leaves raked from the poor pine forest, with the slight additional value which may be derived from the otherwise profitless maintenance of poor cattle, will supply less of food to plants, and at greater cost, than would be furnished by an unmixed growth of peas, all left to serve as manure.

The native or southern pea, (as it ought to be called,) of such general and extensive culture in this and other southern states, is the most valuable for manuring crops, and also offers peculiar and great advantages as a rotation crop. The seeds (in common with other peas and beans) are more nutritious as food, for man and beast, than any of the cereal grains. The other parts of the plant furnish the best and most palatable provender for beasts. The crop may be so well made, in your climate, as a secondary growth under corn, that it is never allowed to be a primary crop, or to have entire possession of the land. It will grow well broad-cast, and either in that way, and still better if tilled, is an admirable and cleansing growth. It is even better than clover as a preparing and manuring crop for wheat. In one or other of the various modes in which the pea-crop may be produced, it may be made to suit well in a rotation with any other crops. Though for a long time I had believed in some of the great advantages of the pea-crop, and had even commenced its culture as a manuring crop, and on a large scale, it was not until I afterwards saw the culture, growth, and uses, in South Carolina, that I learned to estimate its value properly, and perhaps more fully than is done by any who, in this state, avail themselves so largely of some of its benefits. Since, I have made this crop a most important member of my rotation; and its culture, as a manuring crop, has now become general in my neighborhood, and is rapidly extending to more distant places. If all the advantages offered by this crop were fully appreciated and availed of, the possession of this plant in your climate would be one of the greatest agricultural blessings of this and the more southern states. For my individual share of this benefit, stinted as it is by our colder climate, I estimate it as adding, at least, one thousand bushels of wheat annually to my crop.

From this digression to a particular branch, I will now return to the general subject of the neglect of rest and manuring crops for land.

The incessant cultivator does not the less rest, and lose the use of his land, by refusing any cessation of tillage so long as he can avoid it. If such cultivators manure so abundantly that there is no general decline of production, then they do not come under my past remarks and censure. If there be any such, I will only say of their mode of maintaining fertility, that it is less effectual and more costly, than if aided, and substituted in part by manuring crops, and a judicious rotation of crops. But as to many other

* In a recent communication to the Virginia State Agricultural Society, entitled "New Views of the Theory and Laws of Rotation of Crops, and their Practical Application." These views I deem especially applicable to the agricultural condition of South Carolina, and of importance next to the main subject of the present address.

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planters, who, whether slowly or rapidly, are certainly impoverishing their lands, they will, at some future period, be compelled to allow a greater proportion of time for the land to rest, and to greater disadvantage, and less profit, than if allowing regularly either one year in three, or two in five. Suppose the land to yield cotton (or sometimes corn) continuously for thirty, or even forty years—or, with much manuring, sixty. In such cases, it is true, there were as many crops obtained as the land was kept years for tillage. But after the first few years, the products were declining; and for the last five or ten years, on the general average, they scarcely paid more than the expenses of cultivation. The crops also suffered during the whole time the evils of a want of rotation, and the land of want of change of condition. At the close, the land *must* be turned out to rest, because manifestly not worth longer cropping. This compelled cessation and rest will continue for twenty, thirty, or forty years, when the land will be again cleared of its second (or perhaps its third) growth of trees; and, with this and other extra labors, will be again brought under continued tillage, to be again, and much more speedily, exhausted of its smaller recovered amount of productive power. In this manner, though at long intervals, more than the full proportion of rest, required by an improving system of rotation, is given to the land, and enforced by its exhaustion; and the manner is such as to make the least return of benefit for the greatest expense incurred or the respite of the land from cultivation.

My former engagements in South Carolina, and the then especial objects of my investigations and labors, served to make me better acquainted with a large portion of your territory than any other as extensive elsewhere. From that acquaintance was derived the opinion, which I have since asserted and still maintain, that no other as extensive region, known to me, possesses half as great advantages and resources for agricultural improvement, or more needs the employment of these means. The proper and full use of your wonderfully abundant, rich, and easily accessible marl, and the recent shells and other marine remains, offer the best principal and indispensable means for fertilization, and which are available for half your territory. Another great resource, and almost as much neglected, is presented in your great inland swamps, now only wide-spread seed-beds of disease, pestilence, and death; and which, by drainage, with certainty and great profit, might be converted to dry fields of exuberant fertility. It is true that existing legal obstacles oppose these extensive plans for drainage; but these difficulties might be removed by wise legislation, with great benefit to the interests of all concerned—and improvements might be permitted and invited which would render these now worthless and pestilential swamps as fruitful as the celebrated borders of the Po.

The draining of the inland swamps of rich alluvial soil, together with the general application of marl to these and also to the now cultivated higher ground, would go far to remove the long prevailing unhealthiness to which Lower South Carolina is subject, and which is the only important evil which is not entirely in the power of the inhabitants to remedy. I will not presume to say how far this great evil may be lessened by these works of industry and improvement. But, when so much of your country consists of low and wet swamp, and of partially wet higher lands, and all easy to be drained, it does not seem over-sanguine to suppose that, with such drainage and the general extension of the also sanitary operations of marling and liming, the country would be as much improved in healthiness as in fertility. Such change to greater healthiness has been most marked in my own country in the extensively marled neighborhoods, even where there has been no considerable draining operations executed or required. This improvement of health is ascribed, by all who have experienced the beneficial change, mainly to the sanitary influences of the now calcareous soil.

Your extensive and rich river swamp lands offer another great object for improvement, and increase of agricultural profit and wealth. Even the sandy "pine barrens," now unfit for tillage or for any useful production other than the magnificent pine forests which cover them, if made calcareous and put under Bermuda grass, (the curse of tillage lands so infested,) would be made as valuable land for pasturage as the equally barren chalk downs of England.

Your high lands are mostly level, or of gently undulating surface, and easy to till, and the soils generally well suited to your great staple crops, corn and cotton. The navigable rivers which per-

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vade Lower South Carolina, in their number and character, present a remarkable geographical feature, as singular as it is valuable. The main canals required for extensive drainage of the inland swamps would be so many additions to the existing navigable highways. So low are the intervening swamp lands, that nearly all the deep navigable rivers might be connected by canals of level or nearly level water; and in that respect Lower South Carolina might possess the peculiar facilities of Holland for extensive inland navigation. These connecting canals, by diverting some of the superfluous supply of fresh water of some rivers, to others where it is deficient, might perhaps serve to extend greatly the present area of tide-covered land capable of being flooded for rice culture. If such canals, mainly for drainage, but serving also for navigation, were made to connect the Edisto with the Ashley, the Cooper and the Santee, there would be another incidental advantage as remarkable as it would be valuable. The excavation of the canals through the great swamps, (and certainly between those stretching from the Ashley nearly to the Santee,) would generally penetrate into marl of the richest quality, lying a few feet below the surface of the swamps. If duly appreciated, this rich calcareous earth, to be used as manure, would go far to reimburse the cost of the excavation; and if used for lime-burning, would furnish good lime, and at one-third of the price of that for which South Carolina has paid and continues to pay millions of dollars to the lime-burners of New England. This voluntary tribute, at least, which is one of so many unnecessarily paid by the South to the North, might be ended to the immediate and great profit of both the sellers and the buyers of the substituted lime, made of the abundant, cheap and excellent native material. The buying of northern lime by South Carolina and Georgia, is as unprofitable and as absurd a procedure as the usage of importing northern hay. But of these, and of many similar things, we of the South have no right to blame any but ourselves. All the commodities which we import from the northern states, and which might be more cheaply provided at home, serve indeed to make up an enormous amount of annual tribute. But this part of our general burden is fairly and properly levied by northern enterprise and industry upon southern listlessness and indolence. Very different, however, is the case as to the far greater proportion of the general amount of tribute paid by southern to northern interests—from which we have no defence, because government induces and enforces the payment, by the legislative machinery of protecting duties and the indirect bounty system. But I am straying from my designed subject, the improvement of southern agriculture to its governmental and political oppression.

Putting aside all speculative and untried subjects and modes of improvement, and counting upon nothing more than the proper use of your calcareous manures and judicious tillage, and the early results of both—and supposing that your country should be so benefited only in the same degree as has been the small portion of mine, already marled or limed —the most moderate estimate of the agricultural values so to be created would now appear to you so greatly exaggerated as to be altogether incredible. But however much I would desire to avoid the position of a discredited witness, I will not be restrained by that fear from stating general results, which are notorious in Virginia, and to sustain the truth of which, thousands of particular facts could be adduced. These results, susceptible of clear proof, or exhibited by official documents, are, that thousands of farms have been doubled or tripled, and some quadrupled in production, and the general wealth of their proprietors as much increased—the assessed values of marled lands increased by many millions of dollars, while those of similar lands, not so treated, have continued to decline as all did before; and the treasury of the commonwealth is already benefited by many thousands of dollars received annually from the counties containing these improved lands, and derived from them, while the revenue from lands of the neighboring and before similar counties, is still decreasing.

So far, I have spoken as to benefits which have already occurred, and which are unquestionable, and which have been derived from resources and facilities for improvement, not to be compared, in amount and value, with those of South Carolina. I have elsewhere estimated the possible future and full fruition of this system of improvement, in Lower Virginia only, at five hundred millions of dollars of increased pecuniary value of

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capital thereby to be created. The full employment of your much greater resources of this kind, and over as wide a surface, would not be worth less. Then your other great resources, which have been named but not estimated, would be so much more in addition.

But agricultural production and pecuniary values are not the only or the greatest gains; and though others rest upon opinion only, and are incapable of being measured, their existence and their value are not the less acknowledged by all judicious observers in our country, most improved in agricultural production by calcareous manures. The improvement of health has been mentioned; the improvement of economical and social habits, morals and refinement, and better education for the growing generation, have been sure consequences of greatly increased and enduring agricultural profits; and these moral results will hereafter be increased in full proportion to the physical and industrial producing causes. Population, though a later effect, is already sensibly advanced by these agricultural causes. The strength, physical, intellectual and moral, as well as the wealth and revenue of the commonwealth of Virginia, will soon derive new and great increase from the growing improvement of that one and smallest of the great divisions of her territory, which was the poorest by natural constitution—still more the poorest by long exhausting tillage—its best population gone, or going away, and the remaining portion sinking into apathy and degradation, and having no hope left, except that which was almost universally entertained of fleeing from the ruined country, and renewing the like work of destruction on the fertile lands of the far west. Terms of reproach and contempt (once not undeserved) have been so long and so freely bestowed on this tide-water region of Virginia, and had become so fixed by use, that it will be long before they will cease to be deemed applicable; or before many persons, who now know this region only by the memory of former report, will learn that it is not altogether land of galled and gullied slopes, or broomsedge-covered fields, over whose impoverished and dwindling population, indolence and malarious disease contend for mastery.

From these matters, referred to for proof or illustration, I return to my main subject, more immediately connected with, and more likely to be interesting to my auditors.

There is not one of the industrial classes of mankind more estimable for private worth and social virtue than the landholders and cultivators of the southern states. With them, unbounded hospitality is so universal, that it is not a distinguishing virtue—and, in truth, this virtue has been carried to such excess as to become of vicious tendency. Honorable, high-minded, kindly in feeling and action, both to neighbors and to strangers—ready to sacrifice self-interest for the public weal—such are ordinary qualities and characteristics of southern planters. Many of the most intelligent men of this generally intelligent class, are ready enough to accept and to apply to themselves and their fellow-planters the name of "land-killers." But while thus admitting, or even assuming this term of jocose reproach, they have not deemed as censurable or injurious, their conduct on which this reproach was predicated. They have regarded their "land-killing" policy and practice merely as affecting their own personal and individual interests—and, if judged by their continued action, they must believe that their interests are thereby best promoted. Their error in regard to their own interests, great as it may be, is incomparably less than the mistake as to other and general interests not being thus affected. As I have already admitted, individuals may acquire wealth by this system of impoverishing culture, though the amount of accumulation is still much abated by the attendant waste of fertility. But with the impoverishment of its soil, a country, a people, must necessarily and equally be impoverished. Individual planters may desert the fields they have exhausted in South Carolina, and find new and fertile lands to exhaust in Alabama. And when the like work of waste and desolation is completed in Alabama, the spoilers (whether with or without retaining a portion of the spoils) may still proceed to Texas or to California. But South Carolina and Alabama must, nevertheless, suffer and pay the full penalty of all the impoverishment so produced. The people, who remain to constitute these states respectively, as communities, are not spared one tittle of the enormous evils produced—not only those of their own destructive labors, but of all the like and previous labors of their fellow-citizens and predecessors who had fled from the ruin which they had helped to produce. And these evils to the community and to posterity, greater than

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could be effected by the most powerful and malignant foreign enemies of any country, are the regular and deliberate work of benevolent and intelligent men, of worthy citizens, and true lovers of their country!

I will not pursue this uninviting theme to its end—that lowest depression which surely awaits every country and people subjected to the effects of the "land-killing" policy. The actual extent of progress toward that end, throughout the southern states, ought to be sufficiently appalling to produce a thorough change of procedure and reformation of the agricultural system of the South.

In addition to all increase of the other benefits of agricultural improvement which have been cited—pecuniary, social, intellectual and moral—there would be an equal increase of political power, both at home and abroad, which at this and the near approaching time, would be especially important to the well-being and the defence of the southern states, and the preservation of their yet remaining rights, and always vital interests. If Virginia, South Carolina, and the other older slave-holding states had never been reduced in productiveness, but, on the contrary, had been improved according to their capacity, they would have retained nearly all the population that they have lost by emigration; and that retained population, with its increase, would have given them more than a doubled number of representatives in the Congress of the United States. This greater strength would have afforded abundant legislative safeguards against the plunderings and oppressions of tariffs to protect northern interests—compromises (so-called) to swell northern power—pension and boundary laws for the same purposes—and all such acts to the injury of the South, effected by the great legislative strength of the now more powerful, and to us the hostile and predatory states of the confederacy. Even after Virginia, with more than Esau-like fatuity, had sacrificed her magnificent northwestern territory, which now constitutes five great and fertile states, (and a surplus to make, by legislative fraud, a large part of a sixth state,) and all of which are now among the most hostile to the rights of the people of the South—if Virginia had merely retained and improved the fertility of her present reduced surface, her people would not have removed. Their descendants would now be south of the Ohio, ready and able to maintain the rights of the southern states, instead of a large proportion, as now, serving to swell the numbers, and give efficient power to our most malignant enemies. The loss of both political and military strength to Virginia and South Carolina is not less than all other losses, the certain consequences of the impoverishment of their soil.*

If it were possible that, for all Lower South Carolina, the system of improvement could be directed by one mind and will, as much as the operations of any one great individual estate, the most magnificent results could be obtained, with great and certain profit, and in a few years. Without any additional labor or capital, more than now possessed, for beginning the improvement—and with only the subsequent increase of means which would be supplied by the clear profits of the improvements as they became productive—most of the lands accessible to marl or lime could be covered by these manures in ten years. In twenty years from this day, all such lands could be thus improved, and by that time might yield doubled or tripled general products, and would exhibit a proportionally greater increase of value as capital. The new clear profits of this one great improvement would be enough in amount to effect all the practicable drainage of inland and river swamps in twenty years more. Or, in that additional time, the increased revenue of the state treasury, from these new sources only, would suffice to construct all the great works of drainage which would be beyond the means of individual proprietors.

In all opinions expressed as to the values and effects of the agricultural improvements proposed for South Carolina, my data are the experienced and un-

* A condition made by the Government of Virginia, in the act of cession, to the United States, of all her northwestern territory, was, that this territory should afterwards be divided into not more than five new states. Five have already been carved out of this great domain: Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin, and a space of 22,336 square miles remains, in the new territory of Minnesota, which will hereafter constitute so much of another state, in violation of the act of cession by Virginia, and of the faith of the present Federal Government, and in which space, with all the northwestern territory, slavery was interdicted by the ordinance of 1787 of the Confederation. This space of 22,336 square miles, which ought to have been included in the five anti-slavery states already formed, but which will go to constitute a sixth, is nearly as large as South Carolina, and larger, by nearly 1,000 square miles, than the united surfaces of New-Hampshire, Massachusetts and Connecticut.

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questionable results of like labors in Virginia. The legitimate deduction, and the only one for untried operations, is, that like causes will produce like effects in both these different localities. I cannot conceive any reason, founded on existing differences of climate, soil, or subjects of culture, that can make calcareous manures less efficient, or less profitable, with you than with us. Nevertheless, I have learned from mere rumor, that in the small extension of their use, by new operators, which occurred here, there was no general and important benefit obtained. And such, I must infer, was the conclusion reached by nearly all the makers and observers of these trials, from the irresistible, though negative evidence, (which only is before me,) that nothing considerable of such improvements, or of public notoriety, has been effected in latter years. In the absence of all particular information of the actual trials, their results, and the accompanying circumstances, of course I cannot pretend, or be expected, to explain the causes of disappointment, which must be the general result, as it seems that marling has languished, if not ceased, in general, after a few faint efforts.* But I infer that the main and usual cause of supposed failure, or of inconsiderable benefit, has been the same prevailing bad practice, before denounced, of incessant, or at least much too frequent tillage, which does not permit the fields to receive and retain organic matter from their own growths especially. This cause had operated on nearly all the trials of marl made previous to my service in South Carolina. Of all such cases of alleged failure that I was enabled to see and investigate the circumstances, the causes were such as I now suppose of the still later failures. These cases of failure and of disappointment, and the known causes, were brought fully to view in my Report of the Agricultural Survey; and from the more extended remarks, I will quote a short passage, to show my then opinion of the facts, and the causes of previous failures, and my earnest warning against the general course pursued. After reciting the general facts of failure of the previous trials of marling, I proceeded in these words:

"Can any opponents of marling desire more full admissions than these? And yet they all serve to illustrate what I have continually striven to impress, *that without vegetable matter to combine with, calcareous manures will be of little value.* But, on the other hand, I have heard of no trial of marl on land in proper condition, that is, recently and sufficiently rested, and thereby provided with vegetable matter, in which the effect has not been very great *on the first crop.* And three or four of such results, only, would be enough to explain the cause, [of failure in all other cases,] and to prevent all inferences unfavorable to marling, if from a hundred failures of early efforts under reverse circumstances." Then followed particular statements of two different experiments, carefully made that year, (and the circumstances noted at my request,) of marling on new land, and therefore not exhausted of its vegetable matter, and in which the products (which were of cotton) were nearly doubled in the first year of the application.

Here then, even in the few lines quoted from the much more full precepts to the same purport, there is full evidence of my having stated, in advance of all later trials, the sure cause of failure; and in the warning against that cause, I may claim to have predicted all later failures of like occurrence. And if there had been thousands of failures, preceded and accompanied by very frequent and exhausting tillage, all of them would but the more strongly confirm my long entertained and often expressed opinions and instructions as to the action of calcareous manures; and all such cases would not detract a little from the alleged available values. When urging the use of lime, I have never omitted to state that it gave no fertility of itself, or by direct action; and that vegetable matter in sufficient quantity, and in conjunction, was essential to the beneficial operation of calcareous manures. The required organic matter may be supplied mainly in the growth of the land to be improved. But it *must* be supplied in some form, and in sufficient quantity—and also should be, in part, present in advance of the use of calcareous manures, to secure their best early effects.

Planters of South Carolina!—I have offered to you in plain and unvarnished language, and, possibly, it may be in ungracious and distasteful terms, the last advice and admonition that I can expect

* There is, however, one important case, known to me, of at least partial exception to the general rule of failure of marling in South Carolina, in the very extensive and also profitable labors and improvements of Gov. Hammond, on his estate bordering on the Savannah.

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to utter to you, or to any similar audience. My burden of years, and infirmities much greater than even suited to my age, admonish me that my labors must soon close. I would deem it a reward of more value to me than will be the short remainder of my life, if you and your fellow-laborers, even at this late time, (in reference to myself,) would heed my words, and fully profit by them. It is but little that a private individual can do, to warrant to a great commonwealth or community the beneficial results predicted upon stated premises and conditions. But so perfect is my confidence in the general results I have predicted, that I would willingly hazard upon the issue all that I have, in property, reputation, and even life itself. For illustration, and in mercantile or business language—if I possessed hundreds of millions of dollars, to that full amount, for a premium of 10 per cent., I would insure as much clear profit to South Carolina, to be gained by conforming to my directions, for saving and increasing the fertility of her soil. As, however, it is impossible for me to offer any such guaranty, and for me either to incur risk of loss, or to derive pecuniary gain from the results, I can only offer my earnest verbal assurances of your available gain, as great and as sure to be obtained by your pursuing a proper course of improvement, as will be the growing loss and eventual ruin of your country, and humiliation of its people, if the long existing system of exhausting culture is not abandoned. It is not merely my feeble voice and my questionable personal testimony, but also thousands of unquestionable facts, and the sure experience and realized profits of thousands of farmers, which offer to your acceptance the highest agricultural prosperity, in exchange for present decline, and approaching exhaustion of the remaining fertility of your land. Choose, and choose quickly! And remember, as my last warning, that your decision will be between your purchasing, at equal rates of price, either wealth, and general prosperity, of value exceeding all present power of computation, or ruin, destitution, and the lowest degradation to which the country of a free and noble-minded people can possibly be subjected.

ART. V.—EARLY LIFE IN THE SOUTHWEST.

No. II.

COL. ELLIS P. BEAN, OR FIFTY YEARS AGO IN TEXAS.

[In one of our late Nos. we gave a sketch of the remarkable family of the Bowies of Louisiana and Texas. That paper has suggested to a gentleman of Texas, the descendant of an early settler, a series of historical and biographical sketches, relating to the Southwest, which he has kindly promised for our pages. The following is the first of the series:]

Many persons have heard of Bean's Station, in Tennessee. Of the family from which that place derived its name, was one whose name heads this article. In the year 1800, when eighteen years of age, seized with a spirit of adventure, common to the young spirits in that day in the west, which was opposed by his parents, young Bean clandestinely left his father's roof, and passed down the Mississippi in a flatboat. At Natchez his employer died, and he was thrown out of employment, penniless, and among strangers. Thus situated, he was left to reflect upon his condition, and work out his own fortune. Too proud to return home, he resolved to embark in whatever might fall in his way.

At that day there was an occasional contraband trade carried on by means of pack-mules, in caravans, from Natchez, with the Spanish towns of San Antonio, and places on the Rio Grande, attended with great peril, of course, from the numerous Indian tribes inhabiting the vast wilds between the points named, as well as from the vigilance of the Spanish soldiery, ever on the alert to seize all such parties and obtain their merchandise. Most distinguished among these bold traffickers was one Noland. He was about to leave Natchez at this time, (then the spring of 1801,) and young Bean, by some accident, made his acquaintance, and eagerly joined his expedition.

Noland's party consisted of twenty-two men, with a considerable amount of

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goods. They advanced into Texas, and reached a point between the Trinity and Brazos rivers, where they were discovered, and attacked by a body of Spanish troops. Noland occupied a very good position, and made a desperate defence, but was overpowered, thirteen of the party being killed, including Noland himself, and the remaining nine, including Bean, being made prisoners.

The prisoners were hurried forward to San Antonio, and there imprisoned for several months. Thence they were sent, under a guard, through Monclova to Chihuahua, and there imprisoned and chained. Here they were kept in close confinement three years, when they were allowed the privilege of the city limits, and to labor on their own account. Some of them, however, had died in the mean time, and others had been sent to other places, and were never afterwards heard of. Bean had learned the hatting business in Tennessee, and followed it profitably perhaps a year in Chihuahua, when the yearning he had to see his native land, after near six years' absence, induced him, with his two remaining comrades, to run away, and endeavor to reach the United States. But they were arrested near El Paso, taken back, severely chastised, and, after being heavily ironed, again imprisoned. Bean, however, had made many friends in Chihuahua, who, after several months, with strong promises on his part for good conduct in future, succeeded in procuring the liberty of the city for him as before. After following his old business for some time, however, he resolved upon another effort to see his native country, but was again overtaken and carried back.

He was now placed under a strong escort, and started for the south without the least intimation of his destination. In the route, he was transferred from one party of soldiers to another almost daily, and passed the cities of Guadalaxara and Guanajuato. At the latter place, he was detained several days, during which time his noble and commanding person won upon the affections of some senorita so far as to prompt a letter to him, in which she avowed her love, and pledged every sacrifice to obtain his pardon and win his hand. But he was never allowed to see her.

Poor Bean was finally conveyed to Acapulco, one of the most sickly places on the Pacific, and thrown into a most filthy dungeon, where not a ray of light penetrated, and the only air allowed him issued through the base of a stone wall, six feet thick. In this dismal abode, his person was constantly covered with filthy vermin, and no one allowed to see him, except once a day, to give him a scanty allowance of food. His only companion was a white lizard, which he succeeded in taming, and making very fond of him. Even this, said he, was a source of much pleasure to his sinking spirit. The air-hole had to be closed at night to prevent the ingress of serpents, which were abundant at that place. On one occasion he omitted to close it, and in the night he was awakened by the movements of an enormous monster, that had found his way in, and was crawling over his body. His ready mind prompted him to lie perfectly still, until his prison door should open, when, espying the serpent's eyes, he dispatched him by a well-aimed stroke of his knife through the head. He then triumphantly threw the writhing monster out of his cell on to the market-floor adjoining, which so astonished the natives present, and excited their admiration and pity, that a petition was sent to the governor for a mitigation of his sufferings. That humane individual graciously decreed that thereafter he should be allowed to work, though in chains, with a party of miscreant soldiers during the day, and only imprisoned at night. Even this he found a happy relief.

But Bean was a worthy son of Tennessee, and could not subdue the noble spirit of his family and his countrymen that wrestled in his bosom—his heart yearned for liberty. So he sought an early occasion to knock off his chains, and with his crowbar killed three of his astonished guard, and escaped to the neighboring mountains. But here he was reduced to a skeleton by starvation, and re-captured. His old cell now became his only abode, aggravated by flogging and divers other indignities.

After another year he was again allowed the same privilege. But his bold spirit prompted a similar attempt for liberty, in the vain hope of reaching the United States. In this effort he killed seven soldiers, and, taking the route for Upper California, traveled some three hundred miles, when he was seized again, the news of his escape having preceded him, and again carried back. He was now subjected to every imaginable hardship and cruelty—confined in a

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horizontal position, with stocks around his neck, so as to prevent a change of his posture, and there, for weeks, almost devoured by chinches and other vermin. His appeals for mercy, by the populace, and even when addressed to a professed man of God, were treated with contemptuous mockery.

But after ten years of bondage, the day of his freedom was drawing nigh. The Mexican Revolution broke out in 1810, and raged with great fury, threatening the overthrow of royalty in Mexico. The royalists had become alarmed; they had learned to look upon Bean as a chained lion—a redoubtable hero—and now, in the hour of their troubles, they offered him liberty on condition that he would join their standard. This he readily promised; but with a mental reservation that he should desert their hated standard on the first possible occasion, and join the patriots.

Within a few days he was sent on a scout with seven men, to reconnoitre the position of Gen. Morelos, the patriot chief. When near the encampment of that officer, Bean addressed his companions on liberty in general, and proposed they should join the patriots. All acquiesced, and did so. Reporting himself at once to Morelos, he gave him minute information as to the position of the royalists—an attack was at once planned, and carried out with triumphant success, Bean having received a captain's commission in advance. For his reckless daring in the action, he was crowned with roses, proclaimed a colonel on the same day, and placed at the head of five hundred men.

From that day forward, his name and deeds spread like wildfire through Mexico, and was everywhere received with veneration by the down-trodden multitudes. For three years he was the chief reliance of the veteran Morelos, in the desperate struggle that succeeded, with varied success—wherever he fought victory followed.

He had learned in Tennessee how to make gunpowder. This knowledge proved to be of immense advantage to the patriots. He was soon conducted, amid flying banners and deafening shouts, a conqueror into Acapulco, the scene of his sufferings. The puissant wretches, who had been his persecutors, on bended knees now begged for mercy. The veritable man of God who had mocked his sufferings, now supinely crouched at his feet. But the loosed lion scorned to avenge his wrongs on the pusillanimous suppliants, and dismissed them with warnings for their future conduct.

At the close of about three years, from the havoc made among the royalists by Morelos and Bean, an overwhelming force had been thrown into that portion of the country, and the patriots met with sad reverses—such as to change their plan of operations. It was agreed that Bean should cross the country to the Gulf of Mexico, and endeavor to reach New-Orleans by water, with the view of appealing to the United States for aid. With two companions, (both seamen,) he made his way across the country. On the route he became suddenly attached to a lady near Jalapa, and married her, with a pledge that whenever duty permitted he would return, and spend his days with her. Arriving at the town of Soto la Marina, he stole a sloop in the night from the harbor, and put to sea. A few days wafted them safely to New-Orleans, where they arrived about ten days before the great battle of the 8th of January, after Bean had been absent from his country fourteen years. This was the first information he had ever received from the United States, and hence the first intimation he had of the war between our country and Great Britain.

Bean at once reported himself to Gen. Jackson, who had known him in boyhood, and in the battle fought as a volunteer aid to the old hero. Soon afterwards he returned to Mexico, with what success we know not, but returned to Tennessee for a short time in 1817, where he wrote out a detailed history of his singular career, and left it with one of his half brothers, by whose kindness we were allowed, several years ago, to read it several times, and, from memory, have sketched the foregoing account.

In conclusion, we have learned from other sources, that Bean was retained in Mexico as a colonel in the army, after her independence was established, and redeemed his pledge to the confiding lady he had married. In 1827, when the Fredonian war broke out at Nacogdoches, Texas, he was colonel commandant of the Mexican garrison there. In 1835 he returned to Mexico, and resumed his residence at Jalapa; and in 1843, the last we ever heard of him, he was a retired officer on half-pay, and, though sixty-one years of age, was in fine health.

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ART. VI.—THE SPRINGS OF VIRGINIA.

[HAVING visited during the last summer these celebrated resorts of fashion and abodes of health, we gave in one of the numbers of the Review a brief notice of the trip, and promised at an early day an elaborate article upon the subject, which we have now the pleasure of furnishing. The people of the South would do well to sustain and cherish their own watering-places, and we know of none more deserving than those of the Old Dominion.]

There are rain, snow, hail, river, spring, well, lake and pond water, all distinguished from each other by peculiar differences. They all hold in solution air, carbonic acid, carbonate and muriate of lime. Distilled water is freed from these ingredients. Besides these, there are some springs which gush forth with water impregnated with foreign ingredients of particular properties, imparted to it by the channel in the earth through which it makes its course. Springs of this character are properly mineral springs. There are no mineral waters that have not foreign ingredients in them, although there are waters that are medicinal, without being mineral, as the waters of Matlock and Malvern; and there are waters that are mineral without being medicinal. Mineral springs are farther distinguished by the temperature of their waters.

Mineral waters are found in different parts of the United States and in Europe. Those of Virginia are remarkable for their medicinal virtues.

Singular as it may seem, there are considerably over thirty foreign ingredients in mineral water. Yet it is still more singular, that Boyle, in the 17th century, was the first to employ tests to detect their existence. The first experiment of this character was made in 1663.

The following are the principal foreign ingredients found, by the employment of tests, to exist in mineral water:

Atmospheric air, oxygen gas, nitrogen gas, carbonic acid, boracic acid, sulphureous acid, sulphuretted hydrogen, soda, lime, silica; the nitrates of potassa and of lime: the carbonates of potassa, soda, ammonia, lime, magnesia, alumina, iron; the sulphates of soda, of ammonia, of lime, of magnesia, of iron, of copper; the muriates of potassa, lime, soda, of ammonia, of baryta and alumina, of manganese; hydro-sulphuret of soda, hydro-sulphuret of lime.

The mineral, and, indeed, the medicinal springs of Virginia are the White Sulphur, the Blue Sulphur, the Red Sulphur, the Salt Sulphur, the Sweet Springs, the Red Sweet Springs, the Warm Springs, the Hot Springs, the Bath Alum Springs, and the Rockbridge Alum Springs.

It is the opinion of Dr. Stringfellow, that "actual experience shows that virtue has been infused by the Almighty hand into the mineral waters of our state, (Virginia,) which, if skilfully used, and called into requisition in due time, would make them equal to the cure of perhaps every form of chronic suffering known among us."

There are two White Sulphur Springs in the State of Virginia—one of them is west, and the other east, of the Alleghany; one in Greenbrier and the other in Fauquier county.

The most celebrated is the one situated in Greenbrier county, not far distant from Greenbrier River, and but a few miles west of the mountains. Its character, for the medicinal virtue of its water, is well established. If mineral waters are ranged as stimulant, sedative and strengthening, the water of this spring may be classed among the first, although it possesses the qualities of the latter two in diminished strength. Its characteristic is stimulant. It is transparent, and, like champagne wine, is lively, from disengaged air escaping in bubbles when agitated. Its taste is fetid, or hepatized, from the impregnation of sulphuretted hydrogen gas. Its foreign matter is gas, gaseous and saline.

According to the analysis of Mr. Hayes—50,000 grains, (about 7 pints,) of this water, contain in solution 3,633 water grain measures of gaseous matter, or about 1-14 of its volume, consisting of

Nitrogen gas	1.013
Oxygen gas	0.108
Carbonic acid	2.444
Hydro-sulphuric acid	0.68

One gallon, or 231 cubic inches, of the water, contain 16.739 cubic inches of gas, having the proportion of

Nitrogen gas	4.680
Oxygen gas	0.498
Carbonic acid	11.290
Hydro-sulphuric acid	0.271
	16.739

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50,000 grains of this water contain 115.735 grains of saline matter, consisting of

Sulphate of lime	67.168
Sulphate of magnesia	30.364
Chloride of magnesium	0.859
Carbonate of lime	6.060
Organic matter (dried at 212° F.)	3.740
Carbonic acid	4.584
Silicates [silica, 1.34; potash, 18; soda, 66; magnesia and a trace of oxyd. iron	2.960
	115.735

Mr. Hayes thinks this water peculiar, from the fact that the chlorine and the alkaline bases are in small proportions, and the alkaline bases being united to the silicious earths "in combination with a peculiar organic matter." "The organic matter," he says, "resembles that found in the Red Sulphur Springs, and differs essentially from the organic matter of some thermal waters." The saline matter is thought to act not only upon the digestive apparatus most beneficially, but to be taken up by the absorbents and dispersed through the system.

The remark may be predicated of these springs, as of every other medicinal spring, that there is an exclusive order of diseases that they alone benefit, and some of that order more directly healthfully than others.

The process of cure, under the operation of mineral water, is a restoration of the normal, or first principles of the constitution. Hence they are never specific. They may be very certain to cure, but they never cure as specific agencies cure, by acting upon the disease. Mineral waters never act upon the disease, but nnder an indirect operation—the alterative action—the restoration of the normal condition. They act upon nature rather than upon disease. When they cure at all the cure is radical, and a relapse less frequent than when the cure is effected by specifics. They are the medicine of nature, and not a natural medicine. Medical science employs remedial agents taken from nature, but here nature employs her own agents. Hence the process of cure is longer and more radical.

"The White Sulphur water," says Dr. Burke, by whom an excellent work upon the Virginia Springs has been written, "owes its power over the secretory glands mainly to the sulphuretted hydrogen, while the admirable combination of active salts makes it a resolvent, and imparts to it an expulsive power over the secretions. It is its richness in these salts that renders it superior in hepatic and other visceral diseases to the red sulphur, while these very ingredients forbid its use in organic diseases of the lungs, the heart, and the uterus."

The stimulant property of this water is due to the saline matter it contains. Hence it is to be recommended in all cases in which mental or sedentary habits have worked unhealthy effects upon the corporeal system. Most of the diseases that spring and grow from distressing mental pre-occupation—from laborious continuity of thought—yield to the medicinal efficacy of this water as a general rule. Its analysis indicates its medicinal efficacy in diseases of the liver, dyspepsia, when produced by over eating, diseases of the nerves, cutaneous affections, hysteria, rheumatism and gout, prostration from measles, small-pox, pneumonia, or from fevers of every class—chronic syphilis, &c., constipation, bilious diarrhea, &c., &c.

The White Sulphur of Greenbrier is the resort of the fashionable and the gay as well as of the invalid.

The beauty that is weary of the *accustomed* home adoration, visits the springs to obtain the excitement of *new* homage. The widower and the widow, who cannot be pleased by the *near*, sigh for the *far*, and visit the springs. Those that cannot be appreciated at home, go to be appreciated abroad. Those who are unhappy at home, seek to be happy abroad. Pleasure-lovers, money-lovers, ambition-lovers, and variety-lovers, accompany the poor valetudinarian or the invalid, to the springs; so that the laugh and the groan, the ball-room and the hospital, honesty and dishonesty, purity and impurity, become near neighbors at the springs.

Twenty-two miles from the White Sulphur, in the same county, on the Guyandotte road, is the Blue Sulphur Springs.

The temperature of the water is 53 degrees. Its solid ingredients are sulphates of lime, of magnesia, of soda; carbonates of lime, of magnesia; chlorides of magnesium, of sodium, of calcium; hydro-sulphate of sodium and magnesia, oxide of iron, iodine, sulphur, organic matters; and its gaseous ingredients are sulphuretted hydrogen, carbonic acid, oxygen, nitrogen. It has the reputation of curing chlorotic females. It is slightly tonic, from the proto-sulphate found in it.

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Thirty-two miles from the Blue Sulphur, in the adjoining county of Monroe, are the Red Sulphur Springs.

These springs have a great deal of reputation, and are numerously attended. Mr. Hayes, by whom the water (red deposit and mud from these springs) was subjected to a most critical chemical analysis, remarked that at the time at which he engaged in the examination, very little was known of the ingredients of this water, "although its medicinal effects had rendered the watering-place a celebrated one." Mr. Hayes differs from Professor Rogers with regard to the "organic matter contained in the water." He does not consider it of the same nature of the baragene or glairine of the warm springs of Italy and France; an important agent in the estimation of Mr. Hayes in the medicinal efficacy of this celebrated water. "The opinion," remarks Mr. Hayes, "that substances of delicately balanced affinities in their changes gave rise to changes in other bodies, is gaining ground among the most learned physiologists and chemists, and such a view of the effects of some of the constituents of mineral waters is the correct one." This, so well expressed by this shrewd writer, is a germ of a splendid theory. The main and distinctive elements of any theoretical superstructure that might be predicated upon the products as secondary bodies of the substances of delicately balanced affinities, is very carefully guarded and protected by the qualifications placed by Mr. Hayes over the doctrine, that will forever protect it from the curse of the German and French school of physiologists of substituting the crudities of theory for the substantial fruits of the observational system. Mr. Hayes "excludes all those waters wherein one stable constituent, of great activity, gives *character* to the water." "These views would be more acceptable," remarks Mr. Hayes, "if experience had demonstrated their truth; for this we must wait." Did our space admit, nothing would be more acceptable than to run the doctrine respecting changes in secondary bodies, which substances of delicately balanced affinities, in their changes, produce, to those legitimate conclusions warranted by the general laws of fermentation and decay.

In the analysis of Mr. Hayes, it was shown that the proportion of oxygen gas to the nitrogen is still smaller—a result which accords with other observations made at the same time. The hydrosulphuric acid gas is the most active of the gases found, while the carbonic acid gas acts the part of an acid in rendering earthy salts soluble in the water." The most important element brought to public attention in the very scientific analysis of Mr. Hayes, is with regard to the peculiar sulphur compound which forms a part of the saline contents of this water. In his opinion it has never been before "described, if it has before ever been met with." Upon investigation he found that alcohol did not dissolve the compound.

"Chemical experiments do not show," says he, "the medicinal properties of the substances operated upon. But where a substance, the result of *delicately balanced affinities*, gives in its decomposition an agent of powerful action on the animal system, we may conclude that it is an active ingredient, if found in a water possessed of high curative powers." In the general accuracy of this reasoning we profoundly concur, only so far modified, as we think it should be, by the important consideration, that mineral waters never cure, as specific agents, but by the alterative action—the restoration of the normal activity of the system. The diseases in which the Red Sulphur has been more available are, according to Dr. Burke, chronic laryngitis, chronic bronchitis, hemoptysis, chronic phthisis, functional disease of the heart, hypertrophy of the heart, mucous diarrhea, irritability of the nerves, producing sleeplessness, irritation of the kidneys and bladder, lithic acid gravel, chronic hepatitis, amenorrhea, dysmenorrhea, menorrhagia, chronic splenitis, chronic gastritis, hemorrhoids, scrofula, chronic exanthemata of the skin.

"This water," continues Dr. Burke, "being manifestly narcotic, is contra-indicated in plethora, apoplexy, epilepsy, chorea, vertigo, and all diseases indicating too great a tendency of blood to the brain. In the acute stages of disease it is decidedly injurious. In the course of my practice in the neighborhood, it was used in some cases as ordinary drinking water, in the first stages of pleurisy and pneumonia, and in bilious fever, but with invariable aggravation of the symptoms. After the inflammatory stage was subdued and an incipient convalescence, I found it exceedingly valuable in invigorating the constitution."

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In the same county, seventeen miles from the last mentioned watering-place, are the Salt Sulphur Springs. This watering-place has the threefold attraction of the medicinal efficacy of its waters, the tasteful improvements of its proprietors, and its beautiful scenery. The spring, although it furnishes a sufficient supply for the purposes to which it is applied, has the advantage of not being a bold stream, thereby making up for the deficiency of the supply in the greater strength and purity of those foreign ingredients upon which its value and celebrity depend.

These springs are recommended for affections of the brain, chronic headache, mania and palsy in their early stages, in affections of the nerves, and indeed in all diseases dependent upon derangement of the secretory glands of the stomach, in all affections of the chest, and in all the irritations of the stomach and bowels where they have been of long standing, in cases of obstinate constipation, and in cases of ordinary dyspepsia, chronic rheumatism, periostitis, gout, together with cutaneous disorders.

According to Prof. Wm. B. Rogers, the following analysis of the Salt Sulphur Springs may be relied upon:

Temperature variable from 49° to 56°, solid matter procured by evaporation from 100 cubic inches, weighed after being dried, in 212°, 81.41 grains.

Quantity of each solid ingredient in 100 cubic inches, estimated as perfectly free from water—

1. Sulphate of Lime	36.755
2. Sulphate of Magnesia	7.833
3. Sulphate of Soda	9.683
4. Carbonate of Lime	4.445
5. Carbonate of Magnesia	1.434
6. Chloride of Magnesium	0.116
7. Chloride of Sodium	0.683
8. Chloride of Calcium	0.025
9. Peroxide of Iron, derived from protosulphate	0.042
10. An azotized organic matter, blended with sulphur, about	.004
11. Earthy phosphates, } 12. Iodine. }	a trace.

Volume of each of the gases contained in a free state in 100 cubic inches—

Sulphuretted Hydrogen	1.10 to 1.50
Nitrogen	2.05
Oxygen	0.27
Carbonic Acid	5.75

Many persons have been cured here, and have given to the enterprising proprietors certificates to that effect, that have found their way into the public prints. The one from the pen of Mr. Joseph E. Garratt, with regard to an obstinate disease of the liver and dyspepsia, is very satisfactory.

The Sweet Springs are found in the same county, twenty-two miles from the Salt Sulphur. These springs are among the oldest of the Virginia Springs, and among the highest in reputation, and last, not least, are esteemed to be the gayest. The locality is fine, and of convenient access. The water of these springs is recommended in cases of general debility arising from dissipation in eating or drinking, or from any other cause than derangement of any local function by congestion. Languor of mind, shattered state of the nerves, gloomy presentiments ripening into disease, may be removed by the prudent and persevering use of this water. Persons in advanced life may here receive renewed invigoration. In rheumatism and gout they are valuable. In certain forms of dyspepsia they are also serviceable.

In the immediate vicinity of these springs are the Red Sweet Springs, valuable for the chalybeate quality of its water. The tonic property of the water renders it invaluable for bathing purposes, imparting a peculiarly healthful vigor to the debilitated patients that use it in this way. The accommodations for bathing are convenient and substantial, and erected with a special eye to the comfort of the different sexes that visit them.

The following is the analysis of Professor Rogers of the water.

Quantity of each solid ingredient estimated as perfectly free from water. In 100 cubic inches—

Sulphate of Lime	14.233
" Magnesia	3.107
" Soda	1.400
Carbonate of Lime	9.411
" Magnesia	1.166
Chloride of Sodium	0.037
" Magnesium	0.680
" Calcium	0.010
Susquioxide of Iron	0.320

Organic matter in small quantities.
Iodine—a mere trace.
The iron is no doubt dissolved in the water as a carbonate.

Volume of each of the gases contained in a free state in 100 cubic inches of the water:

Carbonic Acid	46.10
Nitrogen	2.57
Oxygen	.20

Sulphuretted Hydrogen—a trace too small to be measured.

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Composition of 100 cubic inches of the mixed gases rising in bubbles in the spring—

Nitrogen	62.5
Carbonic Acid	37.5

The Warm Springs are situated in Bath county, about one hundred and seventy miles from Richmond. The scenery is wild and picturesque. The average temperature of the water is between 99 and 100° Fahrenheit.

The water, as analyzed by Professor Rogers, contains 4.5 cubic inches of gas to the gallon of water—

Nitrogen	3.25	cubic inches
Sulphur Hydrogen	0.25	" "
Carbonic Acid	1.00	" "

The saline contents of one gallon of the water are as follows—

Muriate of Lime	3.968
Sulphate of Magnesia	9.984
Carbonate of Lime	4.288
Sulphate of Lime	5.466
And a trace of Soda	0.000
	23.706

The predominance of the sulphate of magnesia in this water imparts the decided aperient quality belonging to it, while an action upon the skin and the invigoration of the stomach and bowels may be traced to the sulphuretted hydrogen, and to the carbonic acid. As a general rule, warm waters have a more direct and decided impression upon the human system than water of the usual temperature, and hence are to be resorted to with greater care and circumspection. Even in cases of diseases, peculiarly coming under the operation of its curative efficacy, there may often occur serious injuries to the constitution from an injudicious or mal-employment of this agent.

This water is famed for its efficacy in cases of dyspepsia. It also may be used for the following diseases: gout, rheumatism, metastases of gout or rheumatism, lumbago, diseases of the bones, affections of the spinal marrow, debility of the joints, paralysis, uterine derangements, &c.

The famous Hot Springs are situated in the same county, and within a few miles of the Warm Springs. They are owned by different proprietors, and are possessed of such excellent accommodations that the visiting public may safely calculate upon the certain relief from the inconveniences that ordinarily attend watering places.

The Warm Springs, Hot Springs, and Bath Alum Springs, are in the neighborhood of each other, and may be reached from Richmond by the way of the James River and Kanawha Canal to Lynchburg, by the Natural Bridge to Lexington, and then directly by the Rockbridge Alum Springs, to or from Washington City, by the way of the Fauquier White Sulphur Springs and Harrisonburg to the Hot Springs. There are six baths, and the hot pool or bath ranges from 100 to 107° Fahrenheit. There is a hot spout for the ladies, and one for the gentlemen, of the temperature of 106° Fahrenheit, with a fall of about five feet. The efficacy of the hot spout in cases of local physical derangement is well established.

The analysis of the water, as given by Professor Rogers, is as follows:

In 64 cubic inches the saline ingredients are—

Carbonate of Lime	4.82
Sulphate of Lime	1.52
" Soda	0.92
" Magnesia	0 57
Muriate of Soda	0.37
Silica	0.05
	8.25

This water, either as applied to the human body externally, or as taken in draughts internally, imparts its curative properties to the general system by a process much more rapid than if the temperature were not thermal. Acting as mineral waters all do, by their stimulating and invigorating influence upon the normal condition of the system, the diseased organism, or diseased condition, it is expected would be soon ousted under the increased rapidity of operation of their remedial tendencies effected by the hot mineral water. Hence the greater care in ascertaining the diseases that are counter-indicated.

The greater rapidity of the active principles of thermal waters in running to their climax, points to the necessity of guarding persons under any acute frame of disorder from the use of them. Upon the same principle, whenever there is tendency to febrile action, or sub-acute inflammatory action, or when consumption has gone so far as to give rise to febrile action, patients thus affected are to avoid their use; while persons affected by gout or rheumatism, cutaneous affec-

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tions of every class, uterine affections, certain forms of dropsy, may use them with safety.

Within five miles of the Warm Springs is to be found that charming watering-place, the Bath Alum Springs. They have all the freshness of youth and charm of novelty. It is only within a few years that they have gained any celebrity. The buildings are new, and the accommodation fine.

The Rockbridge Alum Springs, in Rockbridge county—Debrell's Spring in Botetourt county, and the springs of Eastern Virginia, are worthy to engage the attention of the invalid, or the votary of pleasure. Mineral waters are often divided into four classes, to wit: the acidulous, the sulphureous, the chalybeate, and the saline.

Acidulous waters comprise those in which the carbonic acid is found either in its free state, or as combined with a lesser base.

Sulphureous waters are those that hold sulphuretted hydrogen as a main element.

Chalybeate waters are those that hold iron as a main ingredient.

Saline waters are those that hold the saline ingredients, ordinarily found in mineral waters, but which do not hold in any excess either of the three ingredients above specified, to wit: carbonic acid, sulphuretted hydrogen, or iron.

Acidulous waters may be known by their acid taste, and by their sparkling when poured from one vessel into another, both of which they lose when exposed to the atmosphere for any length of time.

Sulphureous waters may be known by their odor, and by turning silver black when poured upon it, and by turning a solution of the salt of lead black.

Chalybeate waters may be known by their peculiar taste, and by their becoming black when combined with an infusion of nutgalls. This ingredient is very easily detected—"Copper may be detected by evaporating the fluid to dryness, dissolving the residue in nitric acid, and adding ammonia to the solution. If this metal be present, it will acquire a blue color."

ART. VII.—THE NATIONAL DEFENCES AS CONNECTED WITH A SYSTEM OF INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

My Dear Sir:

The improvement of harbors and their dependent rivers, in connection with the existence of rail-ways and telegraphs, not only promote the interests of commerce, but contribute directly to the defence of the country, by affording commodious havens for the operations of the navy, and by enabling men and military supplies to be collected promptly and moved rapidly to points threatened with invasion.

The rapid extension of the rail-way and telegraph systems in the United States, indicates that private enterprise is sufficient to maintain and increase them in due proportion to the populated areas of the country. But the improvement of harbors and rivers generally are not sufficiently remunerative to call forth private enterprise, even if legislative grants, either by Congress or the states, could be obtained, authorizing the improvement. Nor could any state assume to improve a harbor, or a great river, or "inland sea," like the Mississippi, the Hudson, or the Delaware, and at the same time the right to impose remunerative tolls on the national commerce. This branch then of the internal improvement of the country is entirely dependent on the United States for its maintenance, and as it has been shown that it contributes directly to promote the interests of commerce and the national defence, all doubts vanish as to the constitutional right of Congress to authorize its existence and maintain it with the public money. This was clearly the opinion of Mr. Calhoun. The declaration by the Baltimore Whig Convention that it is expedient to exercise this constitutional power only when it promotes commerce and assists the national defences, has in a great degree disarmed opposition, and it may be now considered the settled

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policy of the country that harbors and their dependent rivers shall be improved under the authority of Congress.

The remarks which follow were embraced in a report to the Secretary of War on the national defences, and have contributed to break down the system of fortifications established thirty-five years ago, and to exhibit other powerful elements in the resources of the country, which, whilst they are the means of unexampled prosperity to the civilized world, make the United States physically and morally the best defended nation in the world against the attacks of brute force, with a correspondent power of offence, should international difficulties require it.

In reviewing "the general system adopted after the war with Great Britain, and since pursued in regard to the permanent fortifications, then deemed necessary for the national defence," it will be relevant to the subject to allude to the condition of that defence when the United States declared themselves independent of Great Britain, and prepared to sustain that declaration by force of arms, during the period of peace from 1783 to 1812, and during the war of 1812–'15.

In the first period the defences on the seaboard of the colonies, extending from Nova Scotia to Florida, were confined to a few points. England, having driven the French from their North American colonies, had little fear of any future attempt on the part of France either to regain her lost possessions, or to attack the other possessions of England in America.

In the course of the war of Independence, the English were driven in succession from Boston, New-York, Yorktown, and other places, and finally from the whole country, by which the power of the United States, even in its incipiency, to resist aggression from the most powerful of nations, was favorably exhibited.

Few or no additional seacoast defences were constructed during the war, yet the public and private armed ships, issuing from the ports of the United States, did immense injury to British commerce, and even kept the whole western coasts of England and Scotland in constant alarm. Some hastily raised redoubts on Dorchester heights compelled the English to retreat from Boston with their fleet and army; and the castle, defending the entrance to the harbor, falling into the hands of the Americans, together with some temporary erections of earth on the surrounding heights and islands, secured Boston from again being occupied by the enemy. Charleston was successfully defended by the Palmetto fort against a squadron of ships; and the success generally of the American arms up to the surrender of Yorktown, demonstrated, if not the impossibility of reducing the colonies to subjection, at least the enormous expenditure of life and money attendant on the attempt.

This truth led, with other things, to a change of policy in England in regard to the United States. The new administration made peace with the colonies; and the wise statesmen of England saw that an intimate commercial intercourse with the United States, as an independent power, would probably be more advantageous to the interests of their country, than the possession of colonies that would require much blood and treasure to regain and hold; whilst the trade with the same would be interrupted and precarious. The foundation of this policy was the preservation for the future of uninterrupted friendly relations between England and America; and it was the determination of the party in power to secure, at all hazards and at all times, peace with the United States.

But unfortunately for a strict adherence to these views, the great wars growing out of the French Revolution placed England in position to struggle for her very existence as an independent power; and, in the course of the contest, principles in relation to neutrality were adopted, and so rigidly adhered to, that the interests and honor of neutral nations, and of the United States in particular, were compromised. In persisting to assert her arrogant pretensions, the government of England was deceived by its diplomatic agents and friends as to the effect produced in America. These, judging of the strength of the party in opposition to Mr. Madison's administration, and of the talent and influence of the principal men of that party, constantly represented to the English government that the President would not recommend to Congress a declaration of war against England in the face of the powerful party opposed to such a measure. A secretary of legation, in Washington, was the only correspondent of the English ministry who understood the exact state of things in the United States. He repeatedly advised

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the minister of Foreign Affairs that the latter was not correctly informed of the feeling in America; and that, unless the orders in council were revoked, and other obnoxious measures and acts abated, war would certainly be declared against England by the United States. At last the secretary was listened to, and the orders in council were repealed; but before the news reached the United States, war had been declared. The messengers bearing respectively the declaration of war, and the order removing the principal cause which led to the declaration, passed each other on the ocean.

Thus was the war of 1812-'15, or, as it has been termed, "the second war of independence," a blunder which England lost no time in remedying, by seeking for and concluding a peace with the United States as soon as she could do so with honor to herself.

At the time peace was made, England was never more powerful. Triumphant over all her enemies in Europe, by sea and land, she was left by the general peace of 1815 in possession of vast means, ready organized and practised in war, with which she might have given the United States some severe, though not fatal blows. But however much her pride of power might have been gratified by carrying her triumphant arms to America, she preferred at once to resume peaceful and intimate relations with the United States, and to secure all the advantages flowing therefrom, then and forever. Her far-seeing statesmen knew that the true policy to be followed in respect to the United States in 1815 was, with increased reasons for its adoption, that indicated by the statesmen of 1783; and they resolved that no future blunder should lead to a war between the United States and England, so far as the latter could prevent it. In this favorable state of the political atmosphere, the clouds that lowered over the northeastern boundary, over Canada during the patriot demonstration, and over Oregon, were soon cleared away. It is true that the United States yielded in these instances something more than was due to England's just claims; but it was rather the graceful yielding of a daughter to a mother's solicitation, than the acknowledgment of any power of coercion possessed by England. If the peaceful views of England were not then generally acknowledged, they are now made manifest. England is not only at this time, to a great degree, dependent on the United States in commercial matters, but signs are significant, that she considers her future fate depends on maintaining the most friendly relations with the United States, so that they would, from interest in commercial matters, and perhaps from a better feeling for their noble mother, *look with disfavor on any combination of the European powers to humble and crush her.*

France also gave evidence how much importance she attached to the maintenance of the most intimate relations in trade with this country, and how reluctantly, if at all, she would resort to hostilities with the United States. The king of the French, supported by public opinion, was enabled to overcome the opposition of the chambers to the payment of the amount stipulated by treaty to be paid for spoliations on our commerce. This public opinion was especially expressed by numerous petitions coming up from the great commercial and manufacturing districts of the kingdom, praying that the difficulties with America might be settled, and peace preserved.

During the period extending from 1783 to 1812, considerable expenditures were made from time to time on our forts and batteries at the principal seaports, in anticipation of possible war growing out of the French revolution; and more recently, in consequence of the continued aggression on our commerce by English cruisers; so that when war actually broke out in 1812, there was not a town of any magnitude that was not supplied with one or more batteries. Nevertheless, there were a great many small towns exposed without defence to the enemy, and were left unmolested by him, seeing that their destruction or injury could in nowise facilitate his operations, whilst such acts of Vandalism would serve only to hold him up to the execration of the civilized world.

In the course of the war of 1812-'15, the defences of the country were considerably increased in value by the construction of field-works; and in no instance were such defences, supported by well-trained and patriotic volunteers, overcome. Attacks were made on Fort Boyer at Mobile, on Fort McHenry at Baltimore, and on Fort St. Philip below New-Orleans, and were successfully repelled. Our vessels of war were blockaded in New-London, and chased into Marblehead and Boston, where they

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found security under the batteries. Castine was taken and held by the enemy, but being a point of no importance, it was not retaken, for it served to detach a portion of the enemy's forces from operating at other points.

Washington was reached, and the Capitol brutally attacked and defaced. The success of the enemy, in this instance, was obtained less from the well-arranged plan of his operations, than from the imbecility of the generals commanding the American forces rallied for the defence. The enemy was signally defeated many times, by sea and land, and the war was triumphantly terminated by the battle of New-Orleans.'

Thus was the country preserved intact, during a war of two years and eight months, against the operations of an enemy having the mastery at sea, and when the defences of the country were comparatively weak.

It should be here remarked, that a large expenditure of money was incurred in consequence of the want of facile lines of rail, canal, or common way communications leading toward and along the northern, Atlantic, and Gulf frontiers, through which men, munitions, and machinery of war could be transported. Yet in face of these difficulties, movements were generally made when required, efficiently, and with considerable promptness.

It was on account of the difficulty of wielding mobile forces for the defence of the seaboard and lake frontiers, rather than from any signal success obtained by the enemy against the ports and batteries, that it was determined at the close of the war to adopt a system of defence by permanent fortifications on a large scale. Under an excitement fed by the friends of the scheme, Congress voted large sums of money to be expended on works which were to be planned, principally, by a foreign engineer, with such help as might, perchance, be rendered by the native officers of engineers, some of whom had not altogether escaped distinction in the late war. A distinguished general officer of engineers in France, who stood high in the estimation of Napoleon, was engaged and received in the service of the United States under the title of assistant engineer, with the rank and pay of a brigadier general. No protest against this arrangement was made by these officers of engineers, whose rank and influence would have entitled them to be heard in opposition, if any was entertained by them.* The acquiescence of these officers, if not amounting to approval, led Congress and the authorities to suppose that no serious disapproval of the measures adopted was entertained by them. Being thus negatively endorsed, it was considered that a good arrangement had been made by the government, by which a lack of skill in the native officers, unfitting them for the task of designing the grand scheme of defence, might be supplied by an importation from abroad.

Under the auspices of the foreign engineer, a scheme for the defence of the seaboard from Passamaquoddy to the Sabine was devised, involving a cost of many millions of dollars, and submitted to, and approved by the government.

The progress of construction of the works under the new, or, as it has been termed, "the third system of defence," was not very rapid. The Gulf frontier being considered the weakest and most assailable was first attended to, and in about ten years the river and lake approaches to New-Orleans, and the entrance to Mobile bay, were occupied by strong works. The commencement of new works of the system was, in the mean time, gradually extended to the north and south Atlantic coasts, and subsequently to all of the most important points along the Gulf and Atlantic frontiers. These defences, combining the repairs of old works with the construction of new ones, place the seacoast of the United States in a better condition of defence than that of any other seacoast in the world.

In planning the new works, it seems to have been taken for granted, in many instances, that each work must depend on itself without chance of succor from forces operating on the rear and flanks. Works were thus constructed, to sustain a siege from ten to fifteen days, in the midst of a population from which relief to the invested work could be drawn in twenty-four hours. The expensive arrangement of these land defences have greatly increased the cost of the works, already from their nature very costly;

* Since the printing of this report I have been informed that the former distinguished chief engineer, General Swift, did make a strong and able protest against the employment of a foreign engineer to aid in arranging the public defence. The letter, dated July 1, 1816, containing this protest, addressed to the Secretary of War, is on file in the Engineer Bureau. W. H. C.

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and at this day excite the surprise of the professional examiner, acquainted with the vast means of collateral defence possessed by the United States, that anything more should have been required for most of the works, than security against assault by escalade.

The report to be made by the chief engineer of the United States, on the *second* resolution of the series before mentioned, will exhibit the exact condition of the works composing "the third system of defence;" the number and strength of the works; the first estimates of cost; their extent, capacity, armament and actual cost; and an estimate of the sums necessary to complete them.

This exhibition will prove what has been herein stated, *that the United States, at this time, possess the best fortified seacoast in the world.*

Whilst the defence of the coast has been gradually accomplished in the course of thirty-five years by the construction of permanent, extensive and expensive fortifications, new and important elements in the national defence and security have been rapidly—almost magically developed. Our population has increased from 8,000,000 to 23,000,000. The progress of the improvement in agriculture, manufactures and commerce, and in the facile lines of intercommunication necessary to meet the demands of the growing prosperity of the country, has advanced in a ratio even greater than that of the population.

The lines of communication, in combination with the electric telegraph, whilst they impart new life and vigor to the country, bring distant sections of it in easy correspondence with the centre, at once affording security against foreign aggression, and making the people more interested in preserving those glorious institutions under which, for seventy years, they have happily lived and prospered.

The interior and exterior commerce of the country have advanced with surprising strides. The latter has become so necessary to the leading commercial nations of the world, that its interruption would produce disastrous results to those nations. The stoppage of the supply of cotton following a war with the United States, would be attended in England by the most serious consequences to her trade and finances—consequences deemed by many as being fatal to the political institutions of that country.

In this brief review, we have passed through three epochs;—that of the Revolutionary war, that of the war of 1812–'15, and that of the elapsed time from 1815 to 1851.

In the first epoch it has been shown that the power of England, although relatively greater than it is now in respect to this country, aided also as it was by a considerable portion of the inhabitants remaining loyal to England, was inadequate to subdue our people, or to retain any portion of our soil.

In the second epoch it has also been shown, that though the national defence, by permanent fortifications, was weak in comparison with the present one—and the means for the operation of the mobile forces were limited and difficult in their use, the most formidable demonstrations of the enemy were easily defeated, and the country preserved from any injurious attacks of the enemy, except in one or two instances.

And in the third epoch it is shown that, in the several international difficulties which have arisen with France and England, those powerful nations gave evidence, throughout the pending negotiations, of their desire to maintain that pacific policy so essential to the prosecution of the commercial and manufacturing pursuits which have been extended so rapidly in their respective countries during the last thirty years.

This epoch, now of thirty-five years' duration, is distinguished for the profound peace which has been maintained throughout the civilized world, without interruption, except in the instances of the Mexican war, and of some unimportant conflicts in Europe—and whilst it has thus been distinguished, it is no less so on account of the wonderful progress made in the arts and sciences, by whose influence the character of nations and of their governments have been greatly changed for the better, affording new guarantees that the pacific policy, so long and profitably maintained by the leading commercial nations, will continue to be cherished towards all countries, and towards ours in particular.

In view, then, of all these things, and especially of the new elements, moral, political and physical, claimed to have been developed and to have greatly increased the power of the United States, *and which must be considered in relation to the future arrangement of the national defence*, the undersigned thinks that the general plan adopted thirty-five years

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ago should be essentially modified, by reducing the number and size of the works proposed to be constructed, and by abandoning some of the defences now in progress of construction, or which are about to be constructed under existing appropriations made by Congress.

The undersigned is also of the opinion that the best interests of the country require that the subject of modification should be submitted to a board composed of artillery and engineer officers, and some eminent civilians; that no new work should be commenced, even if it has been appropriated for by Congress; and that no appropriation should be made by Congress for the completion and repairs of existing works, until the whole subject of the national defence has been considered and reported by the said board.

The Secretary of War desires "that the chief engineer and the above-named officers, (Colonel Thayer, Lieut. Colonel De Russy, Major Delafield and Major Chase.) should direct their inquiries particularly to the following points:

"1st. How far the invention and extension of railways have superseded or diminished the necessity of fortifications on the seaboard?

"2d. In what manner and to what extent the navigation of the ocean, by steam, and particularly the application of steam to vessels of war, and recent improvements in artillery and other military inventions and discoveries, affect the question?

"3d. How far vessels of war, steam-batteries, ordinary merchant ships and steamers, and other temporary expedients, can be relied upon as substitutes for permanent fortifications for the defence of the large seaports?

"4th. How far the increase of the population on the northern frontier, and of the mercantile marine on the northern lakes, can obviate or diminish the necessity of continuing the system of fortifications on those lakes."

The results of the inquiries made by the undersigned in the premises are expressed as follows:

1st. The invention and extension of railways and of the electric telegraph, in connection with the great increase in the number and size of steam vessels navigating the rivers, bays, lakes and ocean, have added greatly to the strength of the Union, by bringing the most distant sections within a few days' travel of the centre, and do thus contribute to preserve tranquillity at home, and repel aggressions from abroad.

The lines of railways, assuming the radiating point at New-York, will shortly be extended to most of the important seaboards and inland towns in the United States. The telegraph lines following the rails, and also diverging from them, are beginning to interlace the country in every direction. By these means, and the rapid increase of our population indigenously and by immigration, agriculture and manufactures have been surprisingly extended throughout our broad domain, and an internal commerce has arisen, by the interchange of the products of art and of our various climates, which is considered to be of greater value than the exterior commerce of the country. With the exception of a few articles, our artificial and natural productions embrace everything that can be produced in any part of the world.

These are immense elements of strength to a nation, and insure its power and prosperity. This is the moral effect.

The existence of these railways and telegraphs contributes directly and physically to the defence of the country, by enabling men and military supplies to be collected promptly and moved rapidly to points threatened with invasion. Railways extend already along the coast, in some instances in double lines, from Portland to Savannah, connecting all the intermediate cities and other important points with the canals and rivers and the naval and military arsenals and depots. From this great base line, other lines, convergent and divergent, have reached lakes Erie, Ontario and Champlain, and they are rapidly approaching and crossing the great lakes and rivers of the west. And it is hoped that Congress will not long delay, in conjunction with the state of Texas, in making such a donation of lands as will enable private enterprise to commence and complete a railway leading from some point between the mouth of Red River and New-Orleans, through Louisiana and Texas to El Paso, and thence through the valley of the Gila to San Diego, in California.

A single example of the pervading extent of the railway system will at once illustrate the subject, and exhibit in a favorable light these new means for the national defence. The completion of the railway, now in course of construction, from Wilmington, in North Carolina, to

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Manchester, in South Carolina, will enable troops to be transported continuously, by railway, from the valley of the Tennessee to Norfolk, in *two days*, to Washington in *two and a half days*, and to Charleston and Savannah in *one day*. The extension of the railway now being made from Chattanooga, on the Tennessee River, to Nashville, will enable the volunteers from the superb military population of Tennessee to be carried to the most distant points of the north and south Atlantic, almost at a moment's warning, and in the course of three or four days; whilst the speedy completion of the road from Atalanta, in Georgia, to Montgomery, in Alabama, and the probable construction of a road from Montgomery to Mobile and Pensacola, will bring the Gulf of Mexico within a day's travel of the same great State of Tennessee.

At the North the system of railways is much more extended. The New-York and Erie road, now complete, is proposed to be extended along the shore of Lake Erie to Cleveland, and thence to Detroit, from whence a road has been carried to Chicago, on Lake Michigan. The seaboard base of railways will thus be brought within easy communication of the most distant lake frontier.

The Massachusetts, Vermont, St. Lawrence and Montreal railways will bring the whole Canada frontier, extending from Lake Ontario down to Montreal, within twenty-four hours' travel on an average, of Boston, Portland and New-York.

The transportation of troops on railways may be effected with great promptness. The first regiment of Pennsylvania Volunteers, raised in Philadelphia, the most distant point from the scene of action, were transported so rapidly to New-Orleans via Pittsburgh and the Pennsylvania railways, that the regiment, one thousand strong, was placed in the van of the volunteer forces, raised for the campaign against Mexico, under General Scott.

Sufficient has been said to show that railways and the electric telegraph contribute largely to the national defence; that the works covering our large seaports and other important points, placed in connection with the railways and telegraph, if they were now to be constructed, might be much reduced in size and cost, if not in number; that the facility with which these works could be relieved, in case of an attempted siege, would have rendered it only necessary for them to be made secure against a *coup-de-main*.

Under these views of the subject, it is at once perceived that, whilst the extension and invention of railways (and the electric telegraph) do not supersede, they greatly diminish the necessity of adding to the number and cost of the fortifications on the seaboard; or, in other words, that the future prosecution of the system of defence by permanent fortifications should be on a very reduced scale in comparison with the magnificent one adopted thirty-five years ago.

2d. The navigation of the ocean by steam, and the application of steam to vessels of war, have certainly added to the facilities of naval operations in making attacks and transporting troops. But such operations are necessarily confined to short lines, like those between France and England, in the Mediterranean, or on the lakes between Canada and the United States.

Attacks by steamers can only be formidable when they are numerous and filled with troops destined for a grand attack; but when they are thus filled with troops, munitions of war, provisions, armament and their regular crews, little room is left for the fuel necessary to propel them to the scene of action and in retreat. Such steamers cannot be propelled either conveniently or rapidly until the propelling power can be produced at a less outlay for fuel. At the rate supposed to be the maximum of speed of war steamers, lines of operations over one thousand miles (five hundred in advance and five hundred in retreat) cannot be occupied advantageously, or with the efficiency necessary to a great movement of a strategic or direct attack. Numerous transports would be necessary to convey supplies of coal to convenient places on the coast, where depots for the same would have to be established and defended at great cost, for they would be constantly in danger of attack by sea and land from enterprising assailants. Besides, the great loads of men, munitions, armaments, provisions and fuel that war and transport steamers would be obliged to carry, multiply the dangers of navigation.

Certainly steamers could make sudden and brief attempts to enter harbors and destroy towns, but fast-sailing ships with favorable winds could do the same, if this kind of marauding and piratical

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warfare was carried on by any Christian nation calling itself civilized, and if not opposed to the same machines of war as those used by the enemy and by acts of retaliation.

Such attempts might be successful in attack and retreat, if made in the night, even if the harbor was strongly fortified, if the fortifications were unaided by rafts and hulks lying across the channels.

But a demonstration on a large scale against the important ports and arsenals, for the purpose of taking possession and levying contributions, requires considerable land forces, even against such points as were not defended by permanent batteries; for at such points, in time of war, earth erections would be made and easily supplied with cannon of heavy calibre, that would do great damage, by direct and vertical cannonade, to the enemy's vessels and forces afloat, after they had entered the harbor, and probably compel them to leave it, and force him to select a more distant point for the initiative of attack.

If the enemy, strong in ships and soldiers, could be driven from Boston by the erection of some redoubts in the course of one night, it is hardly to be supposed that he would attempt to recapture the position, or to attack any other position similarly situated.

Any such demonstration at the present day would be checked by the means just enumerated, and be met on its flanks and in front by the mobile forces rallied by the telegraph to the point of attack.

The improvement in artillery, as regards size and efficiency, has been, of late years, very great, but it enures more to the benefit of the defence than the attack. In the same way that, if steam applied to ships of war afford any advantage to the attack, steam applied on railways, combined with the electric telegraph, affords greater advantages to the defence, by reason of the greater facility with which forces may be moved by the latter means.

From all which it may be safely asserted that the navigation of the ocean by steam, the application of steam to vessels of war, and recent improvements in artillery and other military inventions, do not exhibit the attack of forts on the seaboard superior to the defence, where those forts are connected with railways and are brought within succor of the surrounding population; nor do they render additions to the present fortifications in number, size or cost, in any wise necessary. But, on the contrary, the improvement in artillery, if those fortifications had now to be built, would enable their plans to be reduced *one-half* in size, and the armament *one-fourth* in amount.

The substitution of the ten-inch Columbiad for the mixed and most inefficient armaments with which our fortifications have been garnished at great expense, is already forced upon us by the introduction of those superb guns on board of vessels of war. It would be ridiculous, if it be intended to adhere in any degree to the present system of seacoast defence, to retain the present armaments, composed principally, as they are, of *twelve, eighteen, twenty-four, thirty-two,* and *forty-two pounders.* It is the opinion of many persons, entertained for years past, that but one class of guns should be generally used in our batteries on the coast, and that these guns should be of the largest calibre which experiment has demonstrated could be efficiently used.

Fort McRee, in the harbor of Pensacola, is supplied with *one hundred and twenty guns,* composed of about equal numbers of *twenty-four, thirty-two* and *forty-two pounders.* The average effective range of these guns may be stated at 1,100 yards, and the weight of metal that may be projected from the entire battery 3,920 pounds. Now *thirty* ten-inch Columbiads would throw the same weight of solid shot, and strike an object, with precision, at 2,200 yards distant; so that, whilst the number of guns at Fort McRee might be reduced seventy-five in one hundred, the effective range by solid and hollow shot would be increased one hundred in one hundred, and the efficiency of the batteries greatly increased, at the same time the size of that work might be reduced at least one-half.

3d. Our large seaports and naval depots being already covered by extensive works, and requiring but small additional defences, the discussion of the question as to the superiority of those defences over vessels of war, floating batteries, ordinary merchant vessels and steamers, and other temporary expedients, would seem to be unnecessary. All experience, however, has shown that any kind of floating defences is inferior, on every score, to land batteries, where the localities will permit the latter to be used. This subject has been ably discussed and illustrated in the report made by a board of officers to the Secretary of War, in 1840, on the national

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defences. Other temporary expedients, such as rafts, hulks sunk in channels, and ridges of stone thrown across the same, could be relied upon, in most instances, only as auxiliary defence to land batteries.

4th. In considering how far the increase of population on the northern frontier, and of the mercantile marine on the northern lakes, obviates the necessity of continuing the system of fortifications on those lakes, it will be necessary to bring into view some of the elements of strength, moral, physical, and political, possessed by the United States, and which have already been alluded to in this report.

The chief moral and political element is the aversion to war with the United States, felt by Great Britain, whose present superiority in naval means of attack make her, of all nations, alone formidable to us. This aversion arises from the intimate and *entangling* relations in commerce with this country, and from the dependence of England upon the United States for the chief supply of cotton to the leading branch of her manufactures. And this aversion to the slightest approach of international hostility is not abated by the consideration, that the untoward event of war with the United States would prompt Russia and France to carry out their long-cherished designs of aggrandizement in Turkey, Syria, and India.

The principal physical elements are: *first*, the facility with which, by means of existing railways, we could approach Montreal with a large force, and drive thence the British forces to seek shelter under the walls of Quebec, and finally from all Canada; by which simple and rapid movement the two provinces would fall without a struggle into our possession, with one-half of its population, at least, inclined to a change of sovereignty; and *second*, the superiority of our mercantile marine, affording convertible means for a naval force, giving us the mastery of the lakes, and enabling us to crush any partisan attempts coming from the Canada shore;—and *third*, the superiority of our advantages on the score of a military population lying along the whole northern and lake frontier.

These great moral, physical, and political advantages being undeniable, the continuation of the system of fortifications, on the northern and lake frontier, would involve a useless waste of public money.

The large sums of money expended, and proposed to be expended on the defensive works extending from Rouse's Point to the Sault of St. Marie, would have been, and will be more beneficially applied to the improvement of the lake harbors and dependent rivers, thus promoting the interests of commerce in time of peace, and affording naval depots for our naval forces in time of war.

By demonstrating that such an application of the public money would directly promote the national defence, not only on the lakes, in substitution of fortifications, but on the seaboard, in aiding the defence by fortifications, much of the opposition entertained, on constitutional grounds, towards internal improvements, would be removed.

Under these views, it is the opinion of the undersigned, that the whole system of fortifications for the defence of the northern and lake frontiers should at once be abandoned, and that no more money be applied even for the repairs or completion of the existing works.

The undersigned, in conclusion, would express his opinion in repetition, that a board of artillery and engineer officers and civilians should be formed, to take into consideration the whole subject of the national defences, as called for by the resolutions of the House of Representatives, passed in the session of 3d March, 1851, and as particularly and searchingly alluded to by the Secretary of War, in his order of 17th April, 1851, with a view to the changes necessary to be made in the "third system of defence," commenced thirty-five years ago, and of the adaptation of the same, *inversely*, to the increased power, political, physical, and moral, of the United States;—the composition of such a board being well calculated to have the whole subject opened fairly and discussed freely, by which errors of opinions, particularly those arising from professional prejudices and interests, would be exposed and corrected, the truth in the premises made manifest, and the good of the common-wealth secured.

Civilians versed in national and international policy, and officers known to be opposed to the system of defence on its present scale, as well as those who have declared in its favor, would cause the *pour* and *contre* to be fairly stated, and all sophistry and false principles to be detected and discarded.

In the event of such a board being formed, it is suggested that the *ayes* and *noes* on all important questions should be ordered to be taken and recorded.

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ART. VIII.—CUBA AND THE UNITED STATES.

THE POLICY OF ANNEXATION DISCUSSED.*

THE present and prospective condition of Cuba is one of deep interest. Appearances indicate that Spain cannot long continue to hold possession of that island, unless she changes, and that greatly, her policy in reference to it. Should the Spanish Government extend to the people of Cuba the privileges they so much desire; allow them an equal participation in the offices of honor and profit, instead of bestowing them exclusively upon natives of Old Spain; remove the burdens placed upon commerce, and otherwise modify the harsh features of their present policy, Spain might for years retain possession of the island of Cuba. Nor would she sustain any loss in thus changing her policy, because the increased trade and commerce of Cuba, resulting from a more liberal policy, would more than compensate the Spanish Government for the concessions it might make. But we are apprehensive that Spain will obstinately refuse to ameliorate the condition of that people until a successful resistance shall have been made to the Spanish authorities, and Spain shall have lost her dominion over the island of Cuba. We say we are apprehensive that such will be the result, for we think that if Spain would give to the people of Cuba a wise, liberal and good government, the situation of Cuba would then be better than any which she can occupy under existing circumstances. There are many evils which, we think, would attend a war in Cuba for her freedom and independence, even if she should eventually achieve them, and should ultimately be annexed to our republic. There are many satisfactory reasons why Cuba should not be annexed to the United States, unless it becomes a matter of necessity to annex her in order to prevent her coming under the control of Great Britain or France. The geographical position of Cuba is such that she must either belong to Spain, become an independent government, or be annexed to our republic. In no event could our government permit her to be acquired by any European power, and any such attempt would necessarily involve the nation making it in a war with the United States. Spain, doubtless, relies greatly upon the assistance which she expects to receive from England and France, in the event of any serious attempt being made to free Cuba from her dominion.

It is said that she has assurances to that effect, from one or both of these governments. Taking the view of the subject which we do, we are constrained to say, that what she considers her greatest security, we regard as her greatest danger. In our opinion, any attempt on the part of England and France to render "permanent the union of Cuba with the crown of Spain," by interfering to prevent hostile enterprises against that island, and by giving assistance to the Spanish authorities in any struggle which may take place between them and the people of Cuba, would only serve to hasten the event which Spain, England and France, all seem so much to dread; that is, the annexation of Cuba to the United States. Although we do not approve of hostile enterprises, undertaken by our citizens against the island of Cuba, either for the purpose of exciting the Cubans to insurrection, or of aiding them in throwing off the Spanish government, and believe that it is the duty of our government to use all proper and necessary means to prevent such expeditions, yet we cannot recognize any right in the English and French governments to establish a "police of the seas," and to interfere for the purpose of having our laws executed. We are capable of managing our own affairs, without any supervision on their part, and we consider any such interference, implying, as it does, a distrust of the good faith of our government, as officious intermeddling with that which does not especially concern them.

*The editor of the Review deems it scarcely necessary to say, that he does not hold himself responsible for the opinions of his contributors. Upon the subject of Cuba, which is now so "uppermost" in every one's thoughts, he is willing it should be fairly and impartially handled. It is certainly one of deep *Southern* interest, at least. There are many sober truths in the article which follows, but some things again which are not so obvious. So far as the Review is concerned, it is not prepared to take a position now, but will do so soon, in an article of some elaboration.

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The orders given by the English and French governments to their naval officers in the West Indies, to prevent hostile expeditions against Cuba, were well calculated to be highly offensive to the United States, and any attempt to carry them into execution would necessarily lead to a collision. Whilst we think that the United States should not interfere in a struggle between Spain and the people of Cuba, even to assist those struggling for freedom, yet we could not and would not permit any European nation to interfere in behalf of Spain. All our sympathies would be with those contending for freedom; and although we could not give them any direct assistance, without violating our most sacred and wisest maxims of policy, and without departing from the examples set us by our ablest, most distinguished, and best statesmen, yet if any other government should interpose for the purpose of crushing the rising spirit of liberty on this continent, we would be in duty bound to put a stop to such interference at the hazard of war, if that were necessary. This is and long has been the American doctrine, and it is well that the governments of England and France should distinctly understand the position we occupy on this subject.

In the event of a revolution in Cuba, our citizens would have the undoubted right, if they saw fit to exercise it, of emigrating to that island and taking part in the struggle, but in so doing they would forfeit the privileges of American citizens, and would voluntarily place themselves beyond the protection of our government. They would have to share the fate of war, and to take their chances of success. They would, if unsuccessful, be at the mercy of the Spanish government, but they would not have incurred the guilt of piracy, nor would they have subjected themselves to the penalties of such a crime. They would in no point of view be responsible to any other government than their own and the government of Spain, and neither England nor France would have any right to intercept them, or in any other way interfere with them. If, however, it is the desire of England and France to involve themselves in a war with this country for the sake of preserving "the union of Cuba with the crown of Spain," they can do so, and upon them will rest the fearful responsibility of so disastrous a war as that would be. Our country does not desire a war with either Spain, England or France, on account of Cuba, but our rights as an American nation we will maintain. We will not permit any interference on the part of any European government between those struggling for freedom on this continent and their oppressors. We cannot believe that either the government of England or France desires a war with the United States on account of Cuba, for we cannot see how the true interests of any of the parties would be advanced by such a war. Cuba as an independent government, or under the dominion of Spain, with a milder and more liberal policy than she now has, would be of greater benefit to all the great commercial nations of the earth than if she remained in her present condition, or belonged to any of the great maritime powers. If it should become necessary to annex Cuba to the United States in order to prevent its coming under the control of England or France, then we say, let it be done, but in no other point of view do we see that it would be good policy for us to annex it. The most desirable position which, we think, Cuba could occupy, would be that of an independent republic, rich in her tropical productions, having free and unrestricted commerce with all nations, enjoying their friendship and sharing largely in their trade. In this way she would be as beneficial to the United States as if she were annexed, without any of the evils resulting from annexation. We have never been able to see any good reason why Cuba should be annexed to the United States, even with the consent of Spain, and without the hazard of war. Cuba is unlike Texas in almost every respect. Texas was in a great degree uninhabited. Cuba is densely populated. Texas furnished an outlet for overgrowing population. Cuba is already full, and would afford no homes for the enterprising emigrants from the United States. The present slave population, with its annual increase under the humane system of slavery which would follow its annexation, would be amply sufficient for all its wants.* It would not, then, give us an outlet for our rapidly increasing slave population. The people of Texas had laws, institutions, manners and feelings similar to our own. In fact, Texas was colonized from this country. Such is not

* At present there is an annual decrease of slaves. This is owing to the peculiarly harsh character of slavery there now.

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the case with Cuba. They are different from us in nearly every respect, and would not easily coalesce with us. Though under the same government, they would remain a distinct people. We can easily see how the owners of land and other property in Cuba would be benefited by its peaceable annexation to this country, but how the sugar-growers of our southern states would be benefited by having the productions of Cuba brought into competition with their own, is what we cannot so easily perceive.

If Cuba can now, with all the burdens which are placed upon her industry, afford to pay the duties upon articles imported into this country, and still compete with our Louisiana planters, how will it be when she is relieved of her burdens and has no duties to pay, as will be the case after annexation? Would it not bring ruin upon the sugar-growers of Louisiana, Texas, and Florida? The lands which are now employed in the cultivation of sugar, would then have to be used in raising cotton—and as a matter of course the quantity of cotton would be increased, and the price diminished. This evil would be increased as we continued to acquire other West India islands; and we think the acquisition of Cuba will lead to the acquisition of other islands in the West Indies. We can see no reason, except its military position, why Cuba should be annexed to this country any more than the other West India islands, and doubtless those who advocate the annexation of Cuba will, after that is accomplished, go in for all the rest also.

One of the principal objections to the acquisition of Cuba is that it will renew in all its fierceness the slavery agitation, which came so near destroying this confederacy. If Cuba is annexed, it being a slaveholding state, the North will insist upon the annexation of Canada. Thus we see the advocates of Cuba annexation at the North are even now in favor of annexing Canada. Are we of the South willing to take Canada for the sake of getting Cuba? This is the true question. So far as the balance of power is concerned, the South will not make much by agreeing to take Canada and Cuba together, whilst in every other respect she will be much injured. Cuba is now, and will perhaps always be, in the hands of the Spanish race, which can never be assimilated to our own. In our acquisitions of territory, our object should be to acquire unsettled territory, where our population can expand. We want land without people on it, and not land and people together. It is true, we acquired Louisiana, Florida, Texas, California, and New Mexico, but all of these were in a great degree uninhabited, and many reasons existed in favor of their annexation that do not apply to Cuba.

By our present laws, an emigrant from a foreign country is required to remain in this country five years before he can become a citizen of the Republic. The object of this law is to enable him to become acquainted with our Constitution and laws, and to imbibe something of the spirit of our institutions. But the system of annexing thickly populated countries, and granting to the inhabitants immediately the rights of citizens, is not only wild and dangerous, but a new and untried experiment. Are we prepared to naturalize a whole nation at once, without any previous training, and incorporate them into our Union. This would indeed be progress, but it would be progress towards our own destruction. If then there are so many objections to annexing Cuba, even if it could be peaceably done, what are we to think of those who desire to obtain it at all hazards, with or without war. There are men who are ready to engage in war with Spain, France and England for the purpose of acquiring Cuba. It cannot be expected that either England or France would quietly see so great a maritime nation as the United States acquire Cuba, which is said to be the "key of the Gulf of Mexico." The same reasons which would cause us to oppose the acquisition of Cuba by England or France, would cause them to oppose its acquisition by us. Its military position, they may think, is almost as important to them as it is to us, for they also have valuable possessions in the immediate neighborhood of Cuba, and they are extensively engaged in the commerce of the Gulf. They may think that the acquisition of Cuba will be but the first step towards acquiring the whole of the West India islands, and obtaining exclusive control of the Gulf. Such, if we mistake not, is the policy of one of the most active advocates of wholesale annexation. We say then that there is every reason to believe that the acquisition of Cuba would lead to a long, bloody, and disastrous war, ruinous to all the nations engaged in it, and calculated to lead to no beneficial result. Do we de-

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sire Cuba at the cost of such a war? We shall not at this time undertake to speculate upon the results of a war between Great Britain and the United States. Suffice it to say it would be disastrous to both nations. We might get possession of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick on the north, and all the West Indies and Mexico on the south; for Mexico would become involved in the war by some means or other. But we cannot see that we would be benefited, if, as the result of that war, we should come into possession of all the continent of North America. Our very acquisitions would become the fruitful source of fearful contentions at home, and bitter would be the fruits which we would reap from our unwise policy. Let us pause and consider well the consequences before we take the fearful leap. Let the fate of other republics be a warning to us of the dangers of unlimited extension, and of wars of conquest.

We have now indicated what course we think our government ought to pursue in regard to Cuba. This is soon perhaps to become one of the great questions of the day, and it becomes us to examine it in all its consequences thoroughly. What is to become of Cuba is a question of deep interest. We sincerely trust wise measures will be adopted in reference to it by our own and by all other governments connected with it. We fear the conduct of Spain is precipitating events, and bringing upon the civilized world a fearful crisis. May wise counsels yet prevail, and the dangers which surround this question be avoided!

ART. IX.—INDUSTRIAL RESOURCES, STATISTICS, ETC., OF STATES AND CITIES.

FLORIDA—ALABAMA—TEXAS—COLORED POPULATION OF THE NORTH—RICHEST MAN IN VIRGINIA, ETC.

EAST FLORIDA.—The letter of the Hon. E. C. Cabell to T. E. Andrews, Esq., U. S. Consul at St. Johns, N. B., in reference to Florida, which has been lately published, has attracted much attention to that long neglected state. Mr. Cabell in that document gives the reasons and general causes why she has not progressed in population and wealth like other states of the Confederacy.

For the last four or five years, East Florida has been increasing in population, and the condition of her inhabitants in every respect is far better now than it has been since the exchange of flags in 1821. The valuable natural resources of the state are becoming appreciated and developed, and capital to a large amount is now invested profitably in various enterprises. Upon the St. John's River there are now fourteen steam saw mills, turning out over two millions and a half of sawed lumber monthly; besides this, there are many cargoes of ranging and cedar timber, and live oak, making an annual aggregate of about three hundred and fifty cargoes. The extent of timber is incalculable, and this branch of trade is becoming upon the Atlantic altogether confined to Georgia and Florida.

The county of Marion has become the most populous one in East Florida, and is well repaying the planter for his labor, although the price of land there is high, compared with other counties in the vicinity, and upon the Gulf, where thousands of acres of equally good lands can be obtained at very much less. But the best lands in Florida are yet to be brought out; I mean the cane-brake marshes, on the banks of the St. John's River, for miles. The lands, if properly dammed and planted, would produce sugar, rice, cotton or corn, beyond any land known, and the expenses to prepare it would not exceed those incurred in clearing up a dense hommock.

The outlet for the produce of East Florida, upon the Atlantic side, is chiefly the St. John's River, and the value of the produce, cotton, sugar and tobacco, shipped from it this year, will nearly or quite reach the figure of half a million of dollars. It is but lately that the importance of the trade of East Florida has been known, and at present there is considerable rivalry between Charleston and Savannah to secure it. Until the establishment of the Charleston line last winter, Savannah reaped the chief harvest; but now the trade is tending to Charleston, because it is generally known that for sugar and clean long cotton, Charleston is the best market. The merchants, too, prefer

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Charleston, as the stocks there are larger and better assorted than in Savannah.

The greater part of the produce now shipped from the St. John's comes down the Ocklawaka river, or from the Upper St. John's, and is brought to Palatka, where it is re-shipped for its destination. We would suggest to the directors of the Florida steam packet company the propriety of running their boats to Welaka, a place lately established by Col. J. W. Bryant, about 27 miles above Palatka, immediately opposite the mouth of the Ocklawaka, and near Little Lake George. This will facilitate the planters and merchants in receiving and forwarding their goods and produce, and will avoid the risk and delay incident to the river St. John's navigation in pole-boats, from the Ocklawaka to Palatka, a voyage which, at times, from the width of the river in some places, is attended with great delay and much danger. The saving in freight will also be an object, as the steamboats will charge but a trifle more than from Palatka.

Should this arrangement be carried out, Welaka will become a little town, as its natural beauties exceed any place on the whole river, from the mouth to its source, being situated upon a bluff for one mile upon the river, and a growth of large live oaks, hickory, and other forest trees, skirt the bank, while the background runs off in a plateau of pine barren. Very near Welaka, and near the bank of the river, is the Welaka Sulphur Springs, and about two miles from it are the Magnolia Springs, one sulphur and the other magnesia, another salt, magnesia and sulphur, and a third like the first, but supposed to contain chalybeate properties. Circling the three is a spring of pure water from the hills. Game and fish are abundant, and the sportsman can have enough to engage him in any branch of his science.

Persons visiting Florida for health, or in search of lands, entertain very different opinions respecting the character of the state and its inhabitants. The former frequently come out among entire strangers, without letters of introduction, and perhaps may remain a whole winter without receiving any kind civilities or attentions from families; others, more thoughtful, provide themselves the means, and enjoy a delightful visit. And many who seek lands, come without letters, and what is worse, without horses to travel with. The result is, that they go upon a steamboat, or in a stage-coach, and return disgusted with everything. While others bring good saddle horses, make acquaintances of men who know the country, find pleasant locations on good lands, and become settlers.

The best evidence that Florida repays labor, is the fact that a great many persons have migrated there to relieve themselves from pecuniary embarrassments, and in almost every case, when industry and economy has been practised, the party has become independent.

By the late census, Florida has a population of about 88,000, about half of the number white. It is the third healthiest state in the confederacy. Its crop is greater in quantity of cotton, and aggregate value, than any state in proportion to its population. The average value of its cultivated lands is less than in any other state, being but $18 per acre. The area of Florida is about 38,000,000 (thirty-eight millions) of acres; a great portion of it has not been surveyed, but, as the Indians will soon be removed (peaceably or by force,) it is thought the best sugar lands will soon be offered for sale which are in Florida.

Hon. J. H. Bronson, Judge of the Federal court, who is now residing at Palatka, or Col. J. W. Bryant, or his agent, J. W. Price, Esq., at Jacksonville, would give any information they are possessed of, if applied to, either personally or by letter; and, without some such information, it is difficult to ascertain facts without much delay or inconvenience.

ALABAMA.—No state in the Union possesses to a greater degree materials for a proud independence, than does Alabama. These materials, however, are yet in a crude state, and nothing but a strong decoction of northern fanaticism will ever bring to light their wealth and beauties.

Experience has taught us, that the more we depend upon the North the less are our chances for a successful competition. For this very dependence takes *from* our pockets and *adds* to the wealth of the North, thus depriving ourselves of the means of independence, and making more powerful those upon whom we are dependent.

Cannot cotton cloths be manufactured here as cheap as in Massachusetts? Cannot boots and shoes be made as cheap in Selma as in Lynn? Are there not watering places in the South as conducive of health as Newport or Saratoga? Is there any moral or constitutional obligation binding upon the southern people, which

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compels them to support northern manufacturers, and cater to northern fashionables? When the drain upon southern pockets by northern capitalists *can* be checked and converted into means of enriching the South, ought we not, as sensible men, so convert it? We earnestly solicit the attention of Alabamians to the above queries.

Too much attention is given to the *growing* of cotton. Let some of the time and means of our planters be devoted to the *manufacture* of cotton, and there would arise a source of wealth wholly unparalleled in the South, for certainty. It would be not only a source of wealth to those whose money is invested, but to the community at large. For instance, a cotton factory in Selma, on a large plan, such a one as *ought* to be here, would pay to the stockholders a large dividend—keep in our own community the money that is actually expended in northern markets for the same article—give employment to the poor and industrious, and give Selma more importance than would the gift of a state-house.

Money enough is annually expended by Alabamians at northern watering places and northern cities, in their fashionable summer tours, to build a hundred and fifty miles of rail-road through our state. When this amount of money is left there by one state, what an amount of wealth does the entire South annually leave in northern hands? We are thus furnishing to the hand of an enemy the means of doing us further injury.

Let Alabama but bring to bear the means within her reach, and in a few short years she will bear a proud comparison with boasted Massachusetts. Nature has been bountiful in her gifts to our state. Her soil is productive—her climate salubrious. She abounds with invaluable mines, that require but the hand of enterprise to add to an incalculable degree to our common wealth and importance. The coal beds of Pennsylvania, and its iron ore, have given to that state an importance that she could otherwise never have attained. Yet her natural advantages for the development of these resources are small when compared with those of Alabama. Means of easy transportation are necessary to the successful working of these gifts of nature. Alabama has large, navigable rivers, furnished to use. The face of her country affords every facility for the building of rail-roads. Markets are thus brought within easy access. Notwithstanding the want of navigable rivers and the ruggedness of her country, Pennsylvania has brought into market her coal and her iron, and showing to the nation and to the world, that *her* citizens possess in an eminent degree the spirit of enterprise and industry. How long, with all the advantages which God has given her, shall Alabama remain in the background, with her countless millions of wealth buried beneath her soil?

TEXAS.—In our previous articles (says the *Matagorda Tribune*) on this interesting subject, we have endeavored, in as brief a manner as possible, to point out a few of the many inducements our state presents to the emigrant, whether it be the wealthy planter with his large force of negroes, or to the industrious laboring man "who earns his bread by the sweat of his brow."

Texas, even in her present curtailed proportions under the "compromise" act, embraces a wide scope of territory, variety of climate and diversity of productions. She has an area of 400,000 square miles, extending from the 26th to the 36th degree of north latitude, and from 93° to 110° west, a territory sufficient to carve out three or four respectable sized states from. To go into the complete details, then, of the peculiar advantages possessed by each particular section of such a vast extent of country, could not well come within the purview of an ordinary editorial column, even were our information sufficiently extensive thereon to do them all justice. Hence we have necessarily confined onr remaks principally to that highly-favored portion of the state embraced within the limits of Middle Texas. Here we may place the rich and inexhaustible vallies of the Colorado, the Brazos and the Trinity, a country unsurpassed for its bounteous productiveness and capability of being rendered the greatest sugar and cotton-growing region in the world. It is here will be centered, in a very few years, a population that must constitute Texas the unmistakable Eureka of America. Here nature has lavished her choicest favors to establish, as far as practicable, something in the shape of a paradise on earth. Here, by a little industry, can the poor man become wealthy, and the wealthy rich. It is certainly a mistaken idea entertained by many abroad, that this portion of the state is only adapted to extensive plant-

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ing. It is true that much of the most valuable river bottoms have either been taken up, or are held at such prices not easily attainable by a person of small means; but these are confined to the limits of a near and handy approach to market, and are owned by minors or those who have no occasion for an immediate sale of their property. Beside such, there is an abundance of land throughout the country, equally good, that can be obtained on terms within the reach of any one in the least prepared to engage in agricultural pursuits; and we know of many, and many men, who, but a very few years since, came into the country penniless, and who, by industry and well directed enterprise, are now in competent circumstances. We have seen more instances of the smiles of dame Fortune on the industrious in Texas than we have ever witnessed elsewhere. Indeed, it cannot well be otherwise, for it costs a man comparatively little to live, and all the fruit of his industry is clear gain. Among the principal productions of this section of the state, from its vast richness and highly favored climate, cotton and sugar may be regarded as the leading staples, although we are persuaded that the day is not far distant when a more general diversity of crops will be cultivated and found more profitable. Every day experience goes to prove that the South would be incalculably profited by a more strict observance of this theory. In addition to these staple productions, tobacco can be raised in great abundance, and of the best qualities. From the peculiar qualities of the soil and climate of our sea-coast, resembling very much those districts of Cuba wherein the famous weed is produced to such perfection, we doubt not if proper efforts, aided by experience in the culture, were applied, this portion of Texas might be rendered as famous for its production of the article as that of the country just named. Some specimens from the Havana seed we have seen raised in the vicinity of Matagorda, could not be well distinguished by the most fastidious tastes from the genuine Spanish. So well adapted is this plant to our soil, that in most of our prairies it is found growing spontaneously. But little attention has, so far, however, been paid to its cultivation for the purpose of exportation. Rice might also be made a source of vast revenue to Texas. No section of country can be better adapted to its growth than the islands and the river bottoms of the Colorado near this town. Dykes could be thrown up, and the periodical overflows, so necessary to its successful cultivation, could be secured at a trifling expense and little labor. Here, in itself, is presented a field of fortune to the industrious and enterprising emigrant. Another no less important source of wealth is presented in the cultivation and manufacture of the article of indigo. The plant is indigenous to this section of Texas, and is found in immense quantities throughout our richly bedecked prairies. With all these invaluable productions to reward the laborious and the enterprising with the golden treasures from foreign shores, the tiller of the soil is also blessed at home with every want, comfort and luxury that nature demands, springing up within his grasp. Truly Texas is the happy hunting-ground the red man has long dreamt and told of in his traditionary fables, and eventually found and realized in all their bright and gorgeous pictures. No wonder, then, that he should cling to it with such tenacious jealousy, and part with it only with the last waning remnant of his tribe. Thus it was the case with one of the bravest and most warlike Indian tribes known, and who inhabited the Gulf shore of Texas. The Karanquahas, after having been conquered by the white man, had no aspirations for another home on earth, beyond her enchanted prairies, and were determined to yield them only with the dying breath of their last warrior; and to carry out a suicidal determination to that end, every female child born after the contest was immediately put to death. That measure, we believe, has been nearly accomplished, but there is scarcely a living monument of this custom now remaining.

THE COLORED POPULATION OF THE NORTH.—The Buffalo Courier has a valuable article on the facts disclosed by the late census in reference to the colored population of this country. Their position in the free states has never been calculated to advance their own interests, or to elevate them in the estimation of those about them. They cluster in the purlieus of our large cities, living precariously and by the performance of the most menial labor, or if they do dive into the bush, or squat upon the prairie, it is to live in filth and indolence, content to chop wood by the cord, or to exact the means of subsistence from the negligent cultivation of four or five acres of land. Partly, no

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doubt, in consequence of these circumstances, partly from their general unfitness for the climate and pursuits of northern latitudes, the records show a rate of progress as to numbers which contrasts most strangely with that of the whites by whom they are surrounded, and even with that which prevails amongst their own race in the slave states. The Courier shows that in New-England, where the social condition of the negro has the benefit of a full measure of abolitionist sympathy, his race has not increased as in the South. While the total increase of the whites in New-England has been at the rate of sixty-five per cent. within the last thirty years, that of the blacks has been but 6½ per cent. notwithstanding the constant influx of fugitives. As compared with the census of 1840, the census of last year exhibits an absolute decrease. In New-Hampshire, where no attempt has yet been made to catch a runaway, the decrease amounts to about two-fifths of the whole. The following table, showing the number of colored persons in each of the states at the periods to which it refers, we cut from the Courier:

	1850.	1840.	1830.	1820.	1790.
Maine*	1,313	1,355	1,177	929	
N. Hampshire	477	537	607	783	788
Vermont	710	730	881	918	271
Massachusetts	8.773	8,668	7,049	6.740	†6.001
Rhode Island	3,543	3,238	3.558	3,502	4,355
Connecticut	7,415	8,105	8,072	8,009	5,572
	22,231	22,633	21,364	20,681	16,937

Increase of Colored Persons in New-England.

From 1820 to 1830	484
From 1830 to 1840	1,268
	1,752
Decrease from 1840 to 1850	402
Net increase in thirty years	1,350 or 6½ per ct.

White Population in the same States.

	1850.	1840.	1830.	1820.
Maine	581.021	500,438	398,260	297,340
N. Hampshire	317.354	284.036	268.721	243,236
Vermont	312.756	291,218	279.776	234.846
Massachusetts	985,498	729.030	603.359	516,419
Rhode Island	114.012	105.587	93.612	79.413
Connecticut	363,189	301,856	289,603	267,181
	2,704,729	2,212,165	1,933,340	1,638,435

Increase of Whites in New-England.

From 1820 to 1830	294.905
From 1830 to 1840	278,825
From 1840 to 1850	492.564
Total increase of whites in 30 years	1,066,294 or 65 per ct.

* With Massachusetts.
† Including the then province of Maine.

The disclosure of the census relative to the idiocy and insanity of the colored race, in the North, and its comparative exemption in the South, are equally startling. In Maine, every fourteenth colored person is an idiot or lunatic. In Ohio, there are just ten colored persons who are idiots or lunatics, where there is one in Kentucky. And in Louisiana, where a large majority of the population is colored, and four-fifths of them are slaves, there is but one of these unfortunates to 4,309 who are sane; in Massachusetts, 1 in 43; Connecticut, 1 in 186; New-York, 1 in 257; Pennsylvania, 1 in 256; Maryland, 1 in 1,074; Virginia, 1 in 1,309; North Carolina, 1 in 1,404; South Carolina, 1 in 1,250; Ohio, 1 in 105; Kentucky, 1 in 1,053.

These facts go far to exhibit the hollowness of many of the ideas which abolitionist orators are fond of inculcating, and at the same time furnish cogent arguments in favor of African colonization.

THE RICHEST MAN IN VIRGINIA.—I have thought, for some time, I would write to your paper something in relation to the *richest man in Virginia*, and the largest slaveholder in the Union, and, perhaps, in the world, unless the serfs of Russia be considered slaves: and the wish in your paper, a few days ago, to know who was so wealthy in Virginia, induces me to write this now. Samuel Hairston, of Pittsylvania, is the gentleman. When I was in his section, a year or two ago, he was the owner of between sixteen and seventeen hundred slaves, in his own right, having but a little while ago taken a *census*. He also has a perspective right to about one thousand slaves more, which are now owned by his mother-in-law, Mrs. Ruth Hairston, he having married her only child. He now has the management of them, which makes the number of his slaves reach *near three thousand*. They increase at the rate of near one thousand every year, and he has to purchase a large plantation every year to settle them on.

A large number of his plantations are in Henry and Patrick counties, Virginia. He has large estates in North Carolina. His landed property in stocks alone is assessed at six hundred thousand dollars. His wealth is differently estimated at from three to five millions, and I should think it was nearer the latter. You think he has a hard lot; but I assure you Mr.

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Hairston manages all his matters as easy as most persons would an estate of $10,000. He has overseers who are compelled to give him a writen statement of what is made and spent on each plantation, and his negroes are all clothed and fed from his own domestic manufacture and raising, leaving his tobacco crop, which is immensely large, as so much clear gain every year, besides his increase in negroes, which is a fortune of itself.

And now for his residence. I have travelled over fifteen states of this Union, and have never seen anything comparable to his yard and garden, except some of them in the Mississippi Delta—and none of them equal to it. Mrs. Hairston has been beautifying it for years—and a good old minister, in preaching near the place, and describing Paradise, said it "was as beautiful as Mrs. Hairston's," or as a friend, who had visited Washington city for the first time, remarked, that "the public grounds were nearly as handsome as Samuel Hairston's." Mr. Hairston is a plain, unassuming gentleman, and has never made any noise in the world, though he could vie with the Bruces, the McDonoughs and the Astors; and it is strange, that while their wealth is co-extensive with the Union, he is not known one hundred miles from home. I believe he is now the wealthiest man in the Union, as William B. Astor is only worth about $4,000,000, and the estates of city people are vastly overrated, while Mr. Hairston can show the property that will bring the cash at any moment.

Mr. Hairston was raised within a few miles of where he now lives, in Henry county. He has several brothers, who are pretty well to do in the world. One of them, Marshall Hairston, of Henry, owns more than 700 negroes; Robert Hairston, who now lives in Mississippi, near 1,000; and Hardin Hairston, who has also moved to Mississippi, about 600 slaves. George Hairston, of Henry, has given most of his property to his children, reserving *only* about 150 for his own use.

This, I believe, is a correct statement of the circumstances of the Hairston family; and, for further particulars, and the truth of the statement, I refer you to the present delegate from Henry.

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ART. X.—AGRICULTURAL PROGRESS.

COTTON STATISTICS AND FUTURE PROSPECTS—COTTON IN TEXAS—SOUTHERN AGRICULTURAL CONVENTION—GRAPES AND VINES AT THE SOUTH—SHEEP AND WOOL GROWING IN TEXAS—GEORGIA AGRICULTURAL FAIR.

IN the last few numbers of the Review, we furnished full details of the *cotton statistics of the South* for the past year, in comparison with previous ones. Even with the prospect of enlarged production, the *London Economist* thinks that prices will be sustained at the high figures of last year, and even advanced beyond them. Speculating upon the same subject, a contemporary ventures some judicious reflections which we adopt. An era of great prosperity is evidently pending for our cotton planters, and we wish them every enjoyment from its results.

"The cotton crop of the United States for the year ending August 31, 1852, reached 3,015,029 bales—being 659,772 bales increase upon the crop of the last year, 918,323 bales increase upon the crop of the year preceding the last, and 628,051 bales more than the average crop of the last six years. But the increase of consumption more than kept pace with the increase of production, and hence the price was enhanced and stocks reduced. In September of 1852, the price of cotton was twenty per cent. higher than in September of 1851. But the stocks were much smaller, as appears from the following table:

	Sept. 30, 1851. Bales.	Sept. 30. 1852. Bales.
Great Britain	630,000	590,000
France	39,000	49,000
Remainder of Europe	61,000	78,000
	730,000	717,000

We have no exact information of the stock in the United States, but presume it is not greater than at the same period of last year, as the prices in Europe are

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higher. This phenomenon of a diminished stock and a higher price, in the face of a largely-increased supply, is accounted for solely by a greatly-increased consumption, In Great Britain the weekly consumption of cotton in 1851 was 31,800 bales; in 1852 the consumption reached about 40,000 bales a week, or 2,000,000 per annum. On the continent there has been a corresponding increase of consumption. The direct shipments from the United States to France in the present year have been 120,017 bales more than in the last, and to other parts of Europe 84,435 bales more. In the United States the consumption of 1850–'51 was 404,000 bales; of 1851–'52 it was 603,000 bales—a conclusive contradiction, by the way, of the pretended distress of the manufacturing interest of this country. Thus it is seen that the increase in the consumption of cotton is greater than the increase in production; and we have every reason to believe that this will continue to be the case. The Economist says, "extensive mills are now in course of erection in Great Britain," and contends that the consumption of cotton there will continue to increase. We know that on the continent of Europe, and especially in Germany, the consumption of cotton is increasing steadily and rapidly; and in the United States, notwithstanding the false alarms of greedy capitalists, the example of thriving factories is daily calling additional spindles into operation. It is not hazardous to assert that during the next twelve months the consumption of cotton throughout the world will continue to increase in an unprecedented ratio. But from the most reliable accounts the supply will not exceed, if indeed it will equal, the supply of 1851–'52. Notwithstanding British experiment in Asia, Africa, and the West Indies, upon the southern states of this Union the world is dependent for its supply of cotton, (the flax substitute being a dead failure.) It is probable, then, that the production of the southern states will be equal to the increased consumption we are led to expect? Will the supply keep pace with the demand? Nobody expects the crop of the present year to exceed the crop of last year, whilst many suppose it will be something less. The probable result of the growing crop is estimated at about 3,000,000 bales by persons competent to pronounce in the matter. Thus, while the consumption increases, the production scarcely remains the same—the supply lags behind the demand. Hence the well-founded conclusion that the prices of cotton will range higher during the next than during the past twelve months.

It appears that the cultivation of *cotton* was introduced into *Texas* in 1822 by Col. Jared E. Groce. This was the very first commencement of cotton planting in Texas. This first cotton plant was in the prairie; after that year Col. Groce planted in the Brazos bottom.

The first year or two Col. G. sold his cotton to some neighbors, but afterwards gave it to the settlers who carried it down the river in flat boats. In 1825, Col. G. put up the first cotton gin in Austin's colony, on the plantation where his son, Col. L. W. Groce, now lives. The first cotton shipped from Texas was in 1831, in which year Col. Groce and Mr. Thomas McKinney took a crop to Matamoras by a schooner from the mouth of the Brazos, which, we believe, was sold for about 62 1-2 cents per pound. After that year Col. Groce and his son, with Mr. Thos. F. McKinney, began to send cotton to San Luis Potosi, shipping it to Tampico and thence on pack mules to its destination. It was of course put up in small bales suitable for packing on mules. This trade was continued until the disturbauces between Mexico and Texas broke out in 1835.

Col. Groce at first procured his cotton baling and rope of Mr. Seymour, a merchant in the Red Lands of Eastern Texas; but subsequently he procured these articles from San Felipe.

It is believed there was one cotton gin and only one in Texas before the one erected by Col. Groce, and that was built by Mr. John Cartwright, of the Red Lands.

We referred some time since to an *Agricultural Convention* which was proposed to be held in *Macon*, Georgia, in October last, and of which we have lately received the proceedings. It will be seen that another convention is recommended on the first Monday in May next. The delegates present in October were:

From South Carolina—Col. Wm. Du Bose, J. W. Harrison, Thos. Smith, Col. A. G. Summer.

From Virginia—Dr. Butler.

From Alabama—Dr. N. B. Powell, Dr. —— Cloud, Wm. H. Chambers, R. C. Shorter, Bolling Hall, A. G. McGehee, J. S. Reese, Joseph Hall, Geo. W. Hails,

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Elbert A. Holt, R. J. Glenn, Dr. Wm. H. Rives, Peter Ware, Joseph L. Moultrie, Amos Travis, Jr., L. H. Pierce, Wm. O. Ormsby, Wash. Pollard, Mr. Griswold.

From Mississippi—Col. Thos. G. Blewett, Dr. A. N. Jones, John Morton, Dr. W. Burt.

From Tennessee—F. Keith.

From Louisiana—S. Craig Martyn.

From Florida—Col. Williams, Judge McGee.

The convention was organized by calling Dr. D. A. Reese, of Ga., to the chair, and the appointment of Wm. H. Chambers, of Ala., as secretary.

The objects of the convention were explained by Dr. W. C. Daniell, of DeKalb, who also introduced the following resolutions:

Resolved, That the members of the Agricultural Association of the slaveholding states, to be organized as hereinafter recommended, be composed of such citizens of the same, as taking an interest in agriculture, desire to become members thereof; and of delegates from state and local agricultural societies; and from states or parts of states.

Resolved, That such persons as above designated are recommended to convene at Montgomery, Alabama, on the first Monday in May next, and to organize an agricultural association of the slaveholding states, under such provisions as to them may appear best calculated to fulfil the purposes of their organization, which shall hold its meetings, in succession, in all the slaveholding states that may participate in the association.

Resolved, That a committee of correspondence, to consist of seven, be appointed to carry into effect the foregoing resolutions.

The resolutions were unanimously adopted, and the following gentlemen appointed, to compose the committee of correspondence:

Dr. W. C. Daniell, of DeKalb.
Gov. Geo. R. Gilmer, of Lexington.
Hon. Asbury Hull, of Athens.
Hon. Thos. Stocks, of Greensboro.
Hon. Jas. Hamilton Couper, of Darien.
Col. Jas. M. Chambers, of Columbus.
Maj. Joel Crawford, of Blakely.

We have frequently referred to the *production of grapes and manufacture of wine* in the United States, and noticed elaborately the successful experiment of Mr. Weller, of North Carolina; and Mr. Longworth, of Cincinnati, both distinguished vintners. Many valuable hints and statistics upon the subject will be found in our work on the Industrial Resources, &c., of the South and West. Some one who has lately been on a visit to Cincinnati speaks in high terms of Mr. Longworth's operations. We quote his remarks entire.

"The sparkling 'Catawba,' or champagne, is now made here in great quantities from the same grape. The juice which runs from the mashed grapes before pressure is reserved, fermented and ripened with great care, and sweetened with the purest rock candy. It ripens ready for market in about eighteen months. Mr. Nicholas Longworth produced accidentally the first champagne from the Catawba grape in 1842, and immediately erected a building and sent to France for a manufacturer of this species of wine. This year a hundred thousand bottles will be added to his stock. The sparkling Catawba possesses a delicious flavor, and is regarded by many as superior to the most celebrated imported champagne.

"A variety of wines are made from the same grape by keeping separate the 'must' extracted by the different pressings, and a rich, claret-colored wine is produced by fermenting in the skin, which is very palatable when mellowed by age. But the common practice is to put all the must together in the same cask, and thus the whole juice and flavor of the grape remains, imparting to the wine that fine grapy aroma which has established the reputation of the American Catawba.

"The ground selected for a vineyard is usually a hill-side, with a southern aspect, though the vine does nearly as well on an eastern or western exposure. A dry calcareous loam, with a porous subsoil, is the soil best suited to the culture. Many small vineyards are owned by Germans in moderate circumstances, and afford profitable employment for their families. These sell their wine to the more wealthy dealers, who sell it again under their own label, if it proves of good quality.

"Mr. Longworth's wine cellars are the most capacious that have yet been erected, being 105 feet long, an average of 45 feet in width, and 18 high. The wine of each vintage is kept separate in casks, holding from 2,000 to 5,500 gallons each. Several new wine cellars will be built here during the next season.

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"Greatly as the manufacture of native wine has increased during the last few years, the supply scarcely keeps up with the increasing demand. All the still wine more than five years old is now out of market, and the 'sparkling' is greedily taken off as soon as it is fit for market. The prejudice which at first existed against it on account of its *nativity* is fast disappearing, and many wine drinkers will use no other."

In volume xiii. of the Review, the subject of *sheep raising* and *wool* was treated by us at very great length; and from the attention the paper has everywhere received, we cannot question it has been effecting much good. We are determined to continue the subject from month to month, and would be glad to obtain the experiences of our friends. Referring to Texas in particular, the "Wool Grower" enters into some calculations, &c., which are worthy of being preserved. We are free to confess that we consider Texas without a rival for growing wool, unless there is something better in New-Mexico, or California. The sheep now there can be improved at much less cost than we supposed before we saw the wool. By selecting only those of the best wool, a grade of wool will be produced that will bring, if properly washed, from 28c. to 32c. per lb., averaging about 30c. in this market. The fleeces are clean and light, when washed, and make a desirable kind of wool, which is largely sought for by the manufacturers. There were some fleeces which could hardly be called wool. They were from some of the old Mexican sheep, and would pass for goats' hair in almost any market. Still a cross upon them with a good Merino ram, would produce a desirable breed, for the hair would disappear in the cross to a large extent. If, however, a better grade of sheep are plenty and cheap, we should prefer them at even a higher price, because the wool would be worth at least 10c. per lb. more, which would make a very great difference in the profit. According to Mr. Hill's letter, the expense of keeping sheep must be very small. In a large flock it could not exceed 15 cents per head for the whole year, but suppose it should be 20 cents.

We will take a flock of 1,000, and suppose them to be equal to the average of the wool sent to us. Let us see what can be done by a prudent flock master. The account would be—

DR.	
Cost of 1,000 sheep, at an average of $1 25 per head	$1,250 00
Cost of expenses of care and keep for the year, at 20c.	200 00
Interest on capital, at 7 per cent	87 00
	$1,537 00

CR.	
By 3,000 lbs. of washed wool, at 25c. per lb.	750 00
By increase—say 400 lambs, at 75c.	300 00
Gross profits	$1,050 00
Deduct expense and interest	287 00
Net profits on capital per year	$763 00

And this is only a capital of $1,250. We have made no charge for the use of land, as at present there is a vast range for stock on which nobody pays. We have supposed that the wool-growing was only a branch, and that the other branches paid the interest for any investment that might be made for a house and the other necessary fixtures. To farm it successfully, even their shelter should be prepared, so that during the severe storms of rain and sleet which are common to that country, the sheep should be kept dry. The sheep are very sensitive to wet, and a cold wet storm will injure them very severely. Such sheds need not be very expensive. It is not so much the cold as the wet, that the successful flock master has to guard against. We are satisfied, however, that our estimate of profits is quite too low. But allowing that it is a fair one, what business can any man follow in that state or here that will compare with it?

There is a very curious table made by Mr. Gray, of San Antonio. He shows that on a sheep farm with 500 ewes at the commencement, at the end of ten years the gross value of the wool sold will be $67,800, the expenses will have been $15,900. Possible loss, $10,800, leaving a net profit of $43,200, while the whole amount of capital at the commencement is put down at only $890. We think the table erroneous, however, because he has given too large an increase. The price is low, and the estimated quantity of wool is also low. Still the business can be made immensely profitable, and we shall look for a large increase of wool from that region. The farmers may be assured that they can never glut the market, and they may depend upon a rich demand and good prices for all they can raise for the next ten or twenty years. We would rather take our chance in Texas with a flock of two thousand sheep for the next ten years, than in the richest placers yet found in California for making money.

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The great Fair, which was held in Macon, Georgia, last October, was brilliant in every respect. When we can lay our hands upon the reports of the committees, it will be our pleasure to notice them at length. Mr. Martyn, a gentleman connected with our Review, writes us as follows:

"I have scarcely a word to say of the fair. It was like all other efforts of the same kind. Two or three departments of the exhibition were highly creditable. All agreed that for quality and quantity of real Chinese chickens, the society had much need to be highly gratified. I doubt whether any northern exhibition ever excelled the one in that department. The quantity of stock was considerable, numbering some fine specimens of Devons and other imported breeds. Two or three fine Canadian studs excited much admiration.

"The stock of mules was fine, some of them being the handsomest I have ever seen.

"Colonel Summer, of South Carolina, exhibited a Thibet sheep, which was of course a great curiosity. He also delivered the address, which was handsomely written, well delivered, and, with perhaps one exception, was highly appreciated by all who had the pleasure of hearing it.

"I regretted to see so meagre an assortment of farming and other mechanical implements — that entire department, both in its higher and lower branches, was extremely deficient. In the fine arts, a few copies of landscapes and a few miserably-executed portraits made up the supply. The floral department was creditable. The fruit department, with the exception of apples, and one or two specimens of pears, was slim enough. The receipts were about $4,000."

ART. XI.—COMMERCIAL PROGRESS—HOME AND FOREIGN.

COMMERCE OF FRANCE, 1846 TO 1851—CONSUMPTION OF COAL BY SEA STEAMERS—FINANCES AND FOREIGN TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN, ETC.

THE imports and exports of France, according to the official values of 1826, have been for six years as follows, in francs:

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF FRANCE.

GENERAL COMMERCE.

	Imports.	Exports.	Total.
1846	1,257,000,000	1,180,000,000	2,437,000,000
1847	1,347,000,000	1,271,000,000	2,614,000,000
1848	862,000,000	1,153,000,000	2,015,000,000
1849	1,142,000,000	1,423,000,000	2,565,000,000
1850	1,174,000,000	1,531,000,000	2,705,000,000
1851	1,158,000,000	1,629,000,000	2,787,000,000

SPECIAL COMMERCE.

	Imports.	Exports.	Total.
1846	—	—	—
1847	976,000,000	891,000,000	1,867,000,000
1848	556,000,000	834,000,000	1,390,000,000
1849	780,000,000	1,032,000,000	1,812,000,000
1850	781,000,000	1,123,000,000	1,904,000,000
1851	781,000,000	1,239,000,000	2,020,000,000

By this return, which shows the whole inward and outward commerce of France according to official valuation fixed in 1826, and which therefore represent relative quantities rather than values, it appears that the revolution gave a great check to the importations, but accelerated the exports. The special trade, or that which embraces imports for French consumption and exports of French articles only, has been, it appears, more powerfully affected than the general commerce. The imports declined nearly one-half in the year of revolution, and have never recovered. On the other hand, the exports did not materially decrease in that year, and have since increased 50 per cent., while the general commerce has increased but little. The general consternation and desire to sell in 1847, accelerated the exports, which were further impelled by the 10 per cent. bounty on exports by the government. The proceeds of sales were generally hoarded instead of being invested in produce for manufacture or goods for consumption. The transit trade across France does not appear to have recovered so much. It was as follows:

	Imports.	Exports.	Total.
1847	367,000,000	280,000,000	647,000,000
1848	606,000,000	319,000,000	625,000,000
1851	377,000,000	390,000,000	767,090,000

This result is owing to the fact that the interior countries of Europe are not so far

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tranquillized as in France, for the resumption of industry.

The Philadelphia Ledger, in an article upon the coal trade, furnishes the following information relative to the consumption of coal by sea-going steamers:

New-York being the great centre of coal consumption, inquiry has been directed to that city, with the view of ascertaining the amount of anthracite consumed by steamships, which have so largely multiplied within the last year or two. A gentleman of much experience in the coal business, who has spent a week at New-York, pursuing the inquiry, has left with us his rough notes of facts and observations, from which we learn that the whole number of steamships plying to and from all ports in the United States, (including American steamships in the Pacific, but excluding navy steamships, about sixteen of all sizes,) does not exceed 80. River and Sound steamboats are not counted. The United States coast steamers, including Chagres, &c, all use anthracite. Those on the Pacific use all sorts of fuel, according to the cost. The four Collins steamers take anthracite (Lackawana and Pittston) out, and Welsh, bituminous back. The seven Cunarders take Cumberland coal out, and return with Welsh bituminous. The four Bremen and Havre steamers use bituminous, but the Franklin (Havre) tries anthracite this voyage, to test it against Cumberland.

The Nicaragua Company has just contracted for supplies of Schuylkill coal to be delivered this winter at Havana, Nicaragua, East Coast, in St. Juan, Pacific, and Acapulco. The steamers that touch at Kingston, Jamaica, have contracted for 10,000 tons of Heilner and Beckworth, to be delivered at Jamaica this winter. All steamers touching at New-Orleans take in Pittsburgh coal there, because of its cheapness; but those running to Richmond, Va., take in at New-York anthracite for out and return. From the alphabetical register of the insurance companies of New-York, a list of steamers of all kinds has been obtained, from which the following record of the build of steamships that affect our inquiry is gathered, viz:

In 1846	1847	1848	1849	1850	1851	Total.
2	4	11	10	26	13	66
Add Cunard steamships not entered,						7
Whole number of sea-going steamers,						73

Mr. Haswell, U. S. Engineer, furnishes a list of 78. This gentleman puts the number of steamers now using anthracite in whole or in part, that did not use it in 1850, at 46. He places the average daily consumption of these 46 at 11 tons, or 506 tons daily for all. We will suppose, then, that, viz.: 30 of these use wholly anthracite, 16 half only of anthracite; that their steaming time is 265 days in the year. This would give us for one year, viz.: 30 steamers, consuming each 11 tons for 265 days, and 16 steamers burning 5½ tons for 265 days, making an aggregate consumption of 110,770 tons, as the greatest possible increase from this source. If we even put the working days at 285, and the daily consumption at 15 tons, it would give but 162,500 tons. The whole consumption of anthracite in sea-going steamers, December, 1851, is estimated by another gentleman, intelligent in coal statistics, at 822 tons per diem, working time, say 218,000 tons. The largest figures are too small to aid us much in accounting for the 1,200,000 tons extra mining product of 1851. We have said nothing of river steamers; only of sea-going craft.

The revenue returns of Great Britain, says the Courier and Enquirer, exhibit a singular anomaly in legislation, and demonstrates the inequalities of taxation, especially in reference to the poorer classes of people. Property, with us in the United States, bears the burden of taxation, and contributes mainly to the support of the state governments; while, with our trans-Atlantic friends, the poor man contributes disproportionately to the government revenues, although his labor is not so liberally compensated as it is here. The heads of taxation in Great Britain, which draw so heavily upon the poorer classes, are tea, coffee, sugar, molasses, tobacco, and malt. We condense the table of Annual Revenue for the year ending Sept. 5, 1852, with various subjects of taxation for that period:

Malt	£5,035,000	
Hops	426,000	
Sugar and Molasses	4,159,000	
Tea	5,900,000	
Coffee	444,000	
Tobacco and Snuff	4,466,000	
Soap	1,043,000	
		£21,473,000
Spirits		8,951,000
Wine		1,776,000
Corn		504,000
Paper		934,000
Excise and other licenses		1,907,000
Timber, Currants, Silks, &c		2,454,000
Total Customs and Excise		£37,597,000

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Stamps		£6,529,000
Land Tax	£1,142,900	
Window Tax	1,044,800	
Other assessed Taxes	1,702,200	
		3,789,900
Property and Income Tax		5,440,000
Post-office		2,422,100
Crown Lands		353,000
Other ordinary revenue		703,000
Total revenue for the year		£56,834,000

It will thus be seen that the articles which enter so generally into consumption among the laboring classes, pay over £21,000,000 sterling, or full thirty-eight per cent. of the aggregate revenue of the United Kingdom. Malt liquors form the prominent beverage of the poorer classes, and although tobacco has been heretofore enumerated among the luxuries of the people of Europe, yet it is essentially, among the English, an article of consumption among their poor. The London Quarterly remarks: "It is curious to observe how very largely the revenue of Great Britain depends on what goes into the mouth. * * * The duties of between thirty and thirty-one millions are levied upon articles of universal consumption in England. All but a mere fraction of this may be in some sort regarded as voluntary taxation, so far as the consumers are concerned."

But the most striking feature to us, of the whole exhibit, is the severe taxation upon one article of American manufacture, to the extent of £4,466,000, or $22,300,000 annually. Instead of taxing the real and personal property of the kingdom, and the individual incomes, to such an extent as will cover largely the expenditures of the nation, those articles are taxed heavily which enter into the daily consumption of the lower classes.

The following returns are interesting to our American readers, because the increase of American shipping during the years 1850, '51, '52, employed in the English foreign trade, is shown to be fully 33 per cent.—while that of the British shipping increased very slightly, and that of France actually decreased.

The growing importance of the United States in the English foreign trade, is clearly demonstrated in the tables; while the diminished trade with France, Sweden, the German States, Spain, Portugal, &c., is clearly shown.

During the eight months, ending 30th September, the importation of the last three years of tobacco (unmanufactured) into Great Britain, was as follows:

8 Months,	1850	18,109,000 lbs.
8 "	1851	18,157,000 "
8 "	1852	18,553,000 "

VESSELS EMPLOYED IN THE FOREIGN TRADE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels, distinguishing the Countries to which they belonged, which Entered Inwards, and Cleared Outwards, in the Eight Months ending 5th September, 1852, compared with the Entries and Clearances in the corresponding Periods of the Years 1850 and 1851, stated exclusively of Vessels in Ballast, and of those employed in the Coasting Trade, of the Trade between Great Britain and Ireland.

[Entered Inwards.—Eight Months ended 5th September.]

Countries to which the Vessels belonged.	1850. Ships.	Tonnage.	1851. Ships.	Tonnage.	1852. Ships.	Tonnage.
United Kingdom and dependencies	11,678	2,538,261	12,209	2,753,315	10,928	2,672,026
Russia	212	50,720	282	78,413	202	60,922
Sweden	253	37,092	393	64,860	352	54,266
Norway	797	130,131	1,194	216,255	1,282	230,806
Denmark	1,295	96,756	1,500	126,288	1,253	98,684
Prussia	689	137,033	976	204,934	698	150,522
Other German States	1,574	158,521	1,382	170,769	1,132	141,005
Holland	914	81,237	810	88,120	849	88,159
Belgium	147	22,860	134	24,822	144	24,354
France	1,701	100,720	1,606	103,129	1,120	62,508
Spain	92	14,069	117	18,943	103	15,246
Portugal	72	7,207	57	7,102	29	3,936
Italian States	198	55,970	481	124,959	233	61,194
Other European States	34	10,117	149	38,782	39	10,583
United States of America	494	382,349	679	543,369	654	556,264
Other States in America, Africa or Asia	5	1,427	5	1,207	3	1,300
	20,155	3,824,470	21,974	4,565,267	19,021	4,231,775

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[Cleared Outwards.—Eight Months ended 5th September.]

Countries to which the Vessels belonged.	1850. Ships.	Tonnage.	1851. Ships.	Tonnage.	1852 Ships.	Tonnage.
United Kingdom and dependencies	12,575	2,779,341	13,028	2,912,281	13,345	3,093,803
Russia	183	45,769	195	54,050	157	44,708
Sweden	246	23,954	297	45,228	315	49,407
Norway	492	78,537	550	81,355	594	84,968
Denmark	1,330	105,522	1,466	126,793	1,433	114,340
Prussia	554	107,624	693	131,235	631	129,211
Other German States	1,382	143,749	1,413	160,802	1,694	181,390
Holland	726	86,664	764	104,880	903	131,476
Belgium	146	24,577	130	25,553	185	30,764
France	1,755	144,819	1,682	139,840	1,656	134,225
Spain	93	14,885	128	19,910	111	16,899
Portugal	37	4,466	38	5,495	32	3,966
Italian States	217	62,140	414	114,759	203	54,300
Other European States	49	13,779	123	33,855	56	15,334
United States of America	499	397,197	645	534,956	625	547,997
Other States in America, Africa or Asia	5	1,478	5	1,361	4	1,486
	20,289	4,045,501	21,571	4,492,333	21,944	4,634,274

ART. XII.—INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

IMPROVEMENTS AT WILMINGTON, N. C.—WILMINGTON AND RALEIGH ROAD—TEXAN RAIL-ROAD SYSTEM—MEMPHIS AND LOUISVILLE RAIL-ROAD—ECONOMY OF RAIL-ROADS AS COMPARED WITH OTHER TRANSPORTATION—RAIL-ROAD AT CHICAGO—ST. LOUIS RAIL-ROAD CONVENTION—TENNESSEE IMPROVEMENTS—RAIL-ROAD STATISTICS OF THE WEST AND NORTHWEST—CAN THERE BE TOO MANY OUTLETS FOR THE TRADE OF THE WEST?—COMPETITION OF LOUISVILLE WITH NEW-ORLEANS IN THE COTTON TRADE.

PASSING through *Wilmington*, N. C., a few days ago, we learned from Gen. McRae, President of the Rail-road Company, that a line of stages would soon be put on, so as to secure the connection of Wilmington with the Manchester road, as far as completed, and enable passengers to avoid the sea steamers from Charleston, which have been always such a drawback upon this route. The arrangement will shorten the line of travel and greatly promote its comforts.

In Wilmington one cannot but be surprised with the evidences of progress and improvement which meet him upon every hand, and the rail-roads which are centering at her door indicate a still brighter future. Handsome residences are multiplying—large stores, extensive mills, and what is of much consequence, the inhabitants have acquired great confidence in the health of the place during the summer season.

If *Charleston* would protect herself effectually from the danger of being thrown out of the line of communication between the North and the South, she must speedily enter upon the construction of the roads which some of her citizens have suggested, and which we noticed in a previous number.

The *Wilmington and Raleigh Road* shows a gross total of receipts for the year ending 30th September, 1852, of $510,038. Gross expenditures, $325,909. Leaving a profit of $184,128, or deducting interest account, of $115,898. A dividend of six per cent. was paid on the 12th November.

The people of *Texas* are actively discussing the propriety of an early construction of the Red River and Galveston road, in which it is expected they will have the sympathies of New-York, as in this manner trade will be abstracted from New-Orleans in favor of that city. We have before us a letter from Mr. Lincoln, of Galveston, in which he recommends a course of action to be pursued by the legislature of the state, which meets in January. The suggestions of this letter are criticised in a letter by Mr. Hartley, also before us, who thinks that the donations of land recommended should be made to the *counties;* that the bonds should be issued at a lower rate of interest than 10 per cent., etc. etc. But to Mr. Lincoln's views, viz:

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"Have the legislature at the next session pass a law increasing her donation, and giving to all rail-roads sixteen sections of land per mile, to each five miles of rail-road that is actually properly made, within the limits of the state, with such restrictions as will prevent corporations from over-charging on freights and passengers.

"Also, a law authorizing counties, cities, towns, &c., upon a majority of the tax payers voting for the same, to issue ten per cent. bonds, and laying a tax to provide for the interest thereon, to such companies as are designated at the time, the companies paying for the bonds in their stock; no county to issue bonds to the company until they have actually finished the road to the borders of the counties so doing, or to such other points as the majority of the voters shall designate.

"The rail-roads receiving the bonds and guaranteeing the principal and interest thereon, (which will make them abundantly safe,) can negociate north for means to build the roads beyond a doubt; particularly now, when New-York is awake to the importance to her of the rail-road from Red River to Galveston Bay, and the immense amount of trade, now going to New-Orleans by way of Red River, that will be drawn off that route, and be thrown into New-York city by way of Galveston.

"Also, the bonds being issued direct by the counties, and the people of the counties receiving a direct and immediate benefit therefrom, the fear of repudiation will never arise in the minds of the capitalists at the North or in Europe. The rail-roads also being bound for their redemption, and the counties having directly received an equivalent not only in benefit from rail-roads, but stock for their bonds, which stock without any additional aid will be of sufficient value to pay off the bonds, with every prospect of doing more, will give such confidence that I can see no reason why the road will not be put under almost immediate contract.

"Any attempt to force a county, one to two hundred miles from any public improvement, to pay a tax for such purposes, is not *democratic*, not equalizing *benefits*, though it may *burdens*, and will *never* be submitted to by *Texians;* it is enough that they give a share of the public lands for such purposes."

A rail-road meeting has been lately held in *Memphis*, in which a large number of leading citizens took part. The following resolutions were reported by Robinson Topp, Esq.:

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this meeting—and we believe of the entire population of Memphis—that a direct rail-road route from Memphis through the counties of Shelby, Tipton, Haywood, Gibson and Henry, in West Tennessee—thence by the nearest and best route to Bowling Green and Louisville, is a project of high magnitude, not alone to the counties through which it may pass, but to the whole Mississippi Valley.

Resolved, That we hail with joy the energetic movements now being made in the counties of De Soto, Panola, Yallobusha, and Tallahatchie, Mississippi, for the purpose of constructing a rail-road from this place towards Grenada, or Canton, Mississippi.

Resolved, That we regard the last-mentioned road as a link, and an important one, in the great chain of rail-roads, which must ere long be made from Louisville, through Memphis to New-Orleans, and likewise from St. Louis to New-Orleans.

Resolved, That we feel deeply concerned in the immediate construction of the road through Mississippi, and that the President of this meeting appoint a delegation to the Rail-road Convention, to be held at Hernando, on the 29th inst., with a very earnest request that they will attend, and assure their brethren in Mississippi that they are identified with them in interest, and that the citizens of Memphis and Shelby county will do their part towards promoting the construction of said road.

We published some time ago a very able article by Mr. Hewson, of Tennessee, illustrated by a diagram, showing the *value imparted to lands by rail-road improvement* at all distances. We have since seen an article in the Rail-Road Journal carrying out the subject in more detail.

It is well known, says the Rail-Road Journal, that upon the ordinary highways the economical limit to transportation is confined within a comparatively few miles, depending of course upon the kind of freight and character of the roads. Upon the average of such ways, cost of transportation is not far from fifteen cents per ton per mile, which may be considered as a sufficiently correct estimate

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for an average of the country. Estimating at the same time the value of wheat at $1.50 per bushel, and corn at 75 cents, and that 33 bushels of each are equal to a ton, the value of the former would be equal to its cost of transportation for 330 miles, and the latter 165 miles. At these respective distances from market, neither of the above articles would have any commercial value, with only a common earth road as an avenue to market.

But we find that we can move property upon rail-roads at the rate of one-fifth per ton per mile, or for one-tenth the cost upon the ordinary road. These works thee fore extend the economic limit of the cost of transportation of the above articles to 3,300, and 1,650 miles respectively. At the limit of the economical movement of these articles upon the *common* highway, by the use of rail-roads, wheat would be worth $44.50, and corn $22.27, which sum respectively would represent the actual increase of value created by the interposition of such a work.

The following table will show the amount saved per ton by transportation by rail-road, over the ordinary highways of the country.

Table, showing the value of a ton of wheat and one of corn, at given points from market, as affected by cost of transportation by rail-road, and over the ordinary road:

	Transportation by Rail-road.		Transportation by ordinary highway.	
	Wheat.	Corn.	Wheat.	Corn.
Value at market..	$49 50	$24 75	$49 50	$24 75
10 miles	49 35	24 60	48 00	23 25
20	49 20	24 45	46 50	21 75
30	49 05	24 30	45 00	20 25
40	49 00	24 15	43 50	18 95
50	48 75	24 00	42 00	17 25
60	48 60	23 85	40 50	15 75
70	48 45	23 70	39 00	14 25
80	48 30	53 55	37 50	12 75
90	48 15	23 40	36 00	11 25
100	48 00	23 25	34 50	9 75
110	47 85	23 10	33 00	8 25
120	47 70	22 95	31 50	6 75
130	47 55	22 80	30 00	5 25
140	47 40	22 65	28 50	3 75
150	46 25	22 56	27 00	2 25
160	46 10	22 35	25 50	75
170	46 95	22 20	24 00	0
180	46 80	22 05	22 50	—
190	46 65	21 90	21 00	—
200	46 50	21 75	19 50	—
210	46 35	21 60	18 00	—
220	46 20	21 45	16 50	—
230	46 05	21 30	15 00	—
240	45 90	21 15	13 50	—
250	45 75	21 00	12 00	—
260	45 60	20 85	10 50	—
270	45 45	20 70	9 00	—
280	45 30	20 55	7 50	—
290	45 15	20 40	6 00	—
300	45 00	20 25	4 50	—
310	44 85	20 10	3 50	—
320	44 70	19 95	1 50	—
330	44 55	19 80	0	—

It will be seen that the value of lands are affected by rail-roads in the same ratio as their products. For instance: lands lying upon a navigable water course, or in the immediate vicinity of a market, may be worth for the culture of wheat $100. Let the average crop be estimated at twenty-two bushels to the acre, valued at $33, and the cost of cultivation at $15, this would leave $18 per acre as the net profit. This quantity of wheat, (two-thirds of a ton,) could be transported 280 miles at a cost of one cent per mile, or $3.30, which would leave $14.70 as the net profit of land at that distance from a market, when connected with it by a rail-road. The value of the land, therefore, admitting the quality to be the same in both cases, would bear the same ratio to the assumed value of $100, as the value of its products, $14.70, does to $18, or $82 per acre; which is an actual creation of value to that amount, assuming the correctness of the premises. The same calculation may of course be applied with equal force to any kind and species of property.

The following rail-roads it is said are all aiming in the direction of *Chicago:*

	Miles.
Boston, via Albany, Niagara, Detroit	1000
New-York, via Dunkirk, Toledo	900
Philadelphia, via Pittsburgh, Fort Wayne	800
Baltimore, via Wheeling, Columbus	750
Norfolk, via Cincinnati and Chicago	600
Charleston and Savannah, via Louisville and Indianapolis, Nashville and Evansville	1000
Mobile, via Cairo	900
St. Louis, Alton, Springfield and Bloomington	250
Quincy and Military Tract	200
Rock Island, Peru and Joliet	200
Dubuque, Galena and Chicago	200
Illinois and Wisconsin via Fond du Lac to Lake Superior	400
Lake Shore, Milwaukee and Green Bay	200
	7650

all to be in operation probably in three years.

The convention which was proposed to be held in St. Louis for the construction of a *rail-road from the Gulf to Minnesota*, was duly held, 150 delegates being present. The Hon. Thomas Benton and Mr. Kennett, mayor of St. Louis, delivered addresses. Among the resolutions passed we note the following:

First, That the individual and social interests of the inhabitants west of the Mississippi River, imperatively demand the construction of a rail-road from the city of New-Orleans to a central eligible point in the Territory of Minnesota, in the direction of the Red River of the North, and with a branch to the Falls of St. Anthony;

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said road to pass by the capital of the State of Arkansas, the Iron Mountain and the city of St. Louis, in the State of Missouri, and the valley of the Des Moines River, in the State of Iowa.

Second, That a rail-way thus uniting the fertile valleys and productive prairies of the extreme northern territory of the United States with the Gulf of Mexico, is eminently national in its character, and, therefore, justly entitled to assistance from the general government.

Third, That the act of Congress granting public lands in aid of the Illinois Central and Mobile and Ohio Rail-roads, gives additional strength to the claims of the states west of the Mississippi to a similar grant in aid of the Mississippi Valley Rail-road; for it would be unjust on the part of Congress to refuse assistance to establishing commercial facilities on this, after doing so much to encourage similar works on the other side of the river.

Sixth, That the meeting of this convention affords a proper occasion for those of whom it is composed to urge upon Congress the necessity of adopting immediate measures in view of the certain and speedy construction of the Great Central Pacific Rail-road—a grand national project calculated to unite the interests and advance the prosperity of every part of the republic; and secure by the shortest and most economical route, upon our own soil and through the heart of our own country, safe and uninterrupted communication between its distant borders on the shores of the two great oceans,—a project worthy of the age in which we live and of the American people, who would speedily accomplish this glorious enterprise, if sectional jealousy and conflicting interests could be reconciled, and the national mind concentrated upon its achievement.

Congratulating the South upon the progress of this rail-road spirit, the Mobile Advertiser remarks: "Our own great enterprise, the Mobile and Ohio Rail-road, has no doubt had a great influence in awakening this spirit. It certainly was the main impulse which started New-Orleans from her lethargic slumbers, and caused her to enter into the competition for the trade of central Mississippi and the Tennessee Valley. As matters are now progressing, we have unquestionably the advantage, as we had the start, of our mammoth rival. The two great enterprises, which are being rapidly carried on by our people—the one we have mentioned and the one from Selma—will penetrate the rich regions of Northern Mississippi, North Alabama, Tennessee and Kentucky, before the New-Orleans and Nashville road can be pushed to those quarters. This will give us a decided advantage in securing the trade."

We are obliged to Mr. Hewson for a copy of his valuable letter to the Legislature of Tennessee, upon the subject of the improvement of that state. In the extract which follows he marks out the centres of industry there:

"The industrial geography of Tennessee is marked very distinctly; the bread-stuff region centering at Nashville, the cotton region at Memphis; the great Illinois coal basin running down into the western section of the state, while the whole extent of Eastern Tennessee is traversed in a north and south direction by the great Apalachian coal measures. These few facts define clearly the trade-centres of the state, and also the system of roads by which those trade-centres may be drawn together in the best manner to subserve the purposes of varied production. In the west the manufacturing interests of Tennessee are seated at the nearest edge of the coal-fields to the corn of Nashville, and the cotton of Memphis; in the east the manufacturing interests of the state are situated at that point of the Apalachian coal-fields, which lie most convenient to the supplies of both provisions and cotton from Nashville."

The rail-roads at present projected in the West reach ten thousand miles, two thousand of which are nearly completed. It is said that Pennsylvania, Central, and the Baltimore and Ohio roads will be fed by the following western roads:

IN WESTERN PENNSYLVANIA.

The Hempfield road, Greenburg to Wheeling	78
Pennsylvania and Ohio road from Pittsburgh, west	44
Pittsburgh and Steubenville road	35
Total in Pennsylvania	157

IN OHIO.

The Ohio and Pennsylvania state line to Crestline	136
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	99
Columbus and Wheeling	150
Cincinnati, Circleville, and Zanesville	130
Little Miami, Cincinnati to Springfield	84
Columbus and Xenia	55
Cincinnati and Dayton	60
Cincinnati, Belpre and Wheeling	250
Central Ohio, Columbus to Steubenville	175
Dayton and Western	40

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Bellefontaine and Indianapolis	118
Ohio and Indiana, Crestline to state line	113
Greenville and Miami	30
Eaton and Hamilton	27
Cincinnati to St. Louis	22
Springfield and Columbus	35
Total in Ohio	1,524

IN INDIANA.

The Indianapolis and Lawrenceburgh	90
Indianapolis and Bellefontaine	83
Indianapolis and Terre Haute	72
Lafayette and Indianapolis	70
Central Indiana, Dayton to Indianapolis	72
Madison and Indianapolis	86
Cincinnati and St. Louis	163
Hamilton and New Castle	40
New Castle, Logansport and Chicago	174
Ohio and Indiana, state line to Fort Wayne	18
Shelbyville, Knightstown and Muncietown	73
Total in Indiana	641

IN ILLINOIS.

The Sangamon and Morgan	54
Cincinnati and St. Louis	150
Terre Haute and Alton	160
Terre Haute and Springfield	150
Total in Illinois	514

IN MISSOURI.

The Pacific Rail-road, St. Louis to Independence	300
Hannibal and St. Joseph	300
Total in Missouri	600

IN KENTUCKY AND TENNESSEE.

About	800

RECAPITULATION.

Western Pennsylvania	157
Ohio	1,524
Indiana	941
Illinois	514
Missouri	600
Kentucky and Tennessee	800
Total	4,536

This is the superstructure of the two single tracks from Philadelphia and Baltimore. Depending on the New-York channel there will be—

IN CANADA.

The Great Western Rail-road	270

IN MICHIGAN.

The Michigan Central	228
Michigan Southern	133
Michigan Southern Branches	45
Detroit and Pontiac	25
Total	431

IN OHIO.

The Cleveland, Painesville and Ashtabula	75
Cleveland, Columbus and Cincinnati	135
Toledo, Norwalk and Cleveland	96
Junction Rail-road, Cleveland to Maumee	120
Erie and Kalamazoo, Toledo to Adrian	33
Northern Ohio, Toledo to State Line	70
Total	529

IN INDIANA.

The Northern Indiana	165

IN ILLINOIS.

The Galena and Chicago	132
Aurora Branch and Extension	60
Rock Island and Chicago	180
Central Military Track	84
Jonesville and Chicago	78
Lake Shore	40
Total	574

IN WISCONSIN.

The Lake Shore	40
Jonesville and Fond du Lac	90
Milwaukee and Mississippi	170
Total	300

RECAPITULATION.

Canada	270
Michigan	431
Ohio	529
Indiana	165
Illinois	574
Wisconsin	300
Total	2,269

This is the extension of the five New-York tracks. In addition to these, there are the following North and South roads:

IN OHIO.

Columbus and Lake Erie, Newark to Mansfield	641
Mansfield to Sandusky	56
Mad River and Lake Erie, Dayton to Sandusky	181
Dayton and Michigan, Dayton to Toledo	150
Portsmouth and Chillicothe	45
Scioto and Hocking Valley, Portsmouth to Newark	110
Total	603

IN INDIANA.

Indianapolis and Peru	78
New Albany and Salem	345
Jeffersonville and Columbus	68
Evansville and Vincennes	50
Vincennes and Terre Haute	56
Fort Wayne and Muncietown	65
Goshen and Peru	65
Total	772

IN ILLINOIS.

Illinois Central	640
Springfield and Alton	72
Fox River Rail-road	45
Total	757

RECAPITULATION.

Ohio	603
Indiana	727
Illinois	757
Total	2,087

A very able writer in the Rail-road Journal, discussing the inland *commerce of the Mississippi*, silences all fear of rivalry and competition in rail-roads, in showing that, do the best we can, in no event can transportation, in the next ten years, come up to the demands of production in this glorious granary of the world, called the "American Valley."

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The views of the writer are sound, and have been frequently insisted upon by us in rail-road addresses, especially in an address at the Virginia Inprovement Convention last summer. He says:

"In concluding this subject, the question naturally suggests itself: if such has been the progress of our inland commerce during the past thirty years, what is to be its future? If such results have followed the partial opening of the resources of the new states by water routes, what is to follow the perfect exhumation of the interior of all the states by means of the iron tracks which are to act as feeders to the great Northern and Southern water routes? The year 1860 will dawn upon an internal traffic in the United States valued at no less than $1,800,000,000, including lake, canal, river, and rail-way. And there will be but little rivalry between the different routes. They will work harmoniously together, mutually assisting each other, and all will be fully occupied. The immense heavy products of the Southwest will continue to float down the Mississippi, to the Gulf of Mexico, in great profusion and increase. Much has been written and said of turning the tide of the Mississippi trade north. Above certain lines, where the distance is greatly in favor of the Northern route, some of the present trade, and perhaps all the increase, will take the Northern route during the season of navigation. But the increase of trade south of those lines which will be induced by the opening of projected improvements, will far exceed the amount diverted. The strife now exhibited in procuring means for diverting trade from existing routes will disappear, in the inability to carry off the augmentation. Suppose the Mississippi and the Northern water routes now to have a 'total movement' of 10,000,000 tons, which is probably not very wide of the mark, how many rail-ways like the Erie, Northern, and Baltimore and Ohio, will it take to carry the present tonnage. And how long will it take to construct them? It would require ten rail-ways, each, with double tracks stretching from Boston, New-York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, to New-Orleans, via the Mississippi valley and the Lake Basin, making at least 40,000 miles of track which would cost at least $600,000,000, and take ten years to build. In the mean time, our commerce would have doubled twice, crowding both water and land routes to their full capacity. So this will not do. Our canals in New-York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana and Illinois, must be enlarged, within the next ten years, to a capacity which will admit boats to pass drawing six feet of water, with steam for a propelling power, and stowage for 2,000 bbls. of flour. Freight must be handled by steam, and transit expedited in all possible ways by water. Rail-ways will feed water routes with freight from the interior, the through lines carrying express freight of a light and costly character, and passengers. At least such are our conclusions from the foregoing promises. The great united Northern and Southern routes must always continue the great highways for the products of the interior, upon which they will be exchanged among the states, and the surplus finds its way to the seaboard. By them the Northeast and Southwest will be for ever united, while the numerous iron ways intersecting them at various points, will weld together all the various interests of the several states, in such a bond of union as will prove for ever inseparable."

Louisville, if we may judge from the tone of her papers, expects to become the formidable rival of New-Orleans, and to carry off the palm in the contest for western trade. The *Courier*, in particular, thinks that Louisville will have the forwarding of all the tobacco and all the cotton as far south as Memphis, and that Baltimore will become the mart for these products. The opinion is predicated upon a circular issued by Messrs. Webb, Rowland & Co., of Louisville, to the following effect:

Sales "Pro Forma" Louisville.

100 bales cotton, 50,000 lbs. at 10c		$5,000 00
Charges.		
Freight from Tennessee River, Nashville, or Memphis	$100	
Marine Insurance ½ per ct	25	
Fire " per month, ½ per ct.	25	
Storage, labor, drayage, &c	50	
Commissions, 2½ per ct	125	325 00
		4,675 00
New Orleans proceeds deducted		4,550 00
		125 00

Sales "Pro Forma" New-Orleans.

100 bales of cotton, 50,000 lbs. at 10c		$5,000 00
Charges.		
Freight from Tennessee River	$200	
Marine Insurance, 1 per ct	50	
Fire " per month ½ per ct.	25	
Storage, labor, drayage, &c	50	
Commissions, 2½ per ct	125	450 00
		$4,550 00
Proceeds in excess favor of Louisville		125 00

The above table shows clearly that a shipper on the Tennessee River realizes one hundred and twenty-five dollars on a sale of 100 bales cotton, made in Louis

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ville, over New-Orleans, at the same rate—adopting the same commissions and incidental charges. This gain, it will be perceived, is in freight and river insurance.

Sales "Pro Forma" Baltimore, received from Tennessee River via Louisville.

100 bales cotton, 50,000 lbs. at 11½c		$5,750 00
Charges.		
Freight to Louisville	$100 00	
Drayage, &c. at Louisville	10 00	
Insurance from Tennessee River to Baltimore, 1 per ct	57 50	
Fire Insurance ½ per ct	28 75	
Storage, drayage, &c., 50c. per bale	50 00	
Freight from Louisville to Baltimore, ¾ per ct	250 00	
Commissions, 2½ per ct	143 75	640 00
Proceeds		5,010 00

Sales "Pro Forma" Baltimore, received from Tennessee River via New Orleans.

100 bales cotton, 50,000 lbs. at 11½c		$5,750 00
Charges.		
Freight to New Orleans	$200 00	
Drayage at New Orleans	50	
Insurance from Tennessee River to Baltimore, 2¼ per ct	129 38	
Fire Insurance ½ per ct	28 75	
Storage, drayage, labor, &c.	50 00	
Freight from New-Orleans to Baltimore	250 00	
Commissions 2½ per ct.	143 75	851 88
		4,798 12
Excess in favor of Louisville route		211 88

The above is to contrast the advantage of the Louisville and Baltimore, and Ohio rail-road route, over the old route, via New-Orleans; and we should add that the difference in time in favor of Louisville is about one month—one-half per cent. interest.

Let us next show the dealers and manufacturers of western New-York, Pennsylvania, together with those of Baltimore, Philadelphia and New-England, upon what grounds we advocate Louisville as a cotton market, to draw a part at least of their supplies from; and in making this exhibit, the shipper to this market can see at the same time *why* this is to be his best "home market." We make a "pro forma" invoice of 100 bales purchased in Louisville and New-Orleans, at 10c., for account of, say a manufacturer in Baltimore:

Invoice of 100 bales Cotton purchased in Louisville.

100 bales, 50,000 lbs. at 10c		$5,000 00
Drayage		6 25
Insurance to Baltimore ½ per ct		31 25
Discount on draft at 60 days $5,500, to pay for same, 1 per cent		55 00
Freight from Louisville to Baltimore, via Wheeling and Louisville line, and Ohio & Baltimore Rail-road, 50c per 100 lbs		250 00
Loss in interest from the day purchased to the day delivered in Baltimore, 10 days		9 17
Commission for purchasing, negotiating and shipping—50c		50 00
		5,401 67
Difference in favor of Louisville		223 95
		5,625 62

Invoice of 100 bales Cotton purchased in New Orleans.

100 bales, 50,000 lbs. at 10c	$5,000 00
Drayage and shipping	25 00
Marine Insurance 1¼ per ct	62 50
Discount on draft, 60 days $5,500, to pay for same, 2¼ per ct	121 25
Freight, ½c	250 00
Commission, purchasing, negotiating, &c., 2½ per ct	125 00
Loss in interest from the day purchased to the day delivered in Baltimore, ¾ per ct	41 87
	5,625 62

Thus it will be seen that the northern or Baltimore manufacturer saves by buying here, in place of purchasing in New-Orleans, $223 95 on 100 bales, while at the same time the shipper obtains here $125 more on his 100 bales than he realizes in the great southern market. So decidedly does it appear to the interest of the Baltimore consumer in future to look to this market for a large share of his wants, in this staple, and it is reasonable to say that he can afford to pay more here than in the market named, and *here then* is a *further advantage* to those who consign to this market. Further, let us see what advantage the foreign exporter of Baltimore and the European operator will have in buying here at the half-way house, between the northern and southern seaboard, over New-Orleans, at the same first cost.

"Pro Forma" Invoice of 100 bales Cotton purchased in Louisville for account of Liverpool.

100 bales, weighing 50,000 lbs at 10c	$5,000 00
Drayage	6 32
Insurance to Liverpool, 1½ per ct	75 00
Discount on draft, 60 days on Baltimore, to pay for same, 5,500 at 1 per ct	55 00
Freight from Louisville to Baltimore ½c	250 00
Loss of interest from the day of purchasing in Louisville to the day of delivery in Liverpool, 40 days, is	36 67
Commission, purchasing and shipping, 50c.	50 00
Drayage and shipping at Baltimore	25 00
Freight from Baltimore to Liverpool at ¼d or ½c	250 00
	5,748 02
In favor of buying at Louisville	165 73

"Pro Forma" Invoice of 100 bales Cotton purchased in New-Orleans for account of Liverpool.

100 bales weighing 50,000 lbs at 10c	$5,000 00
Drayage and shipping	25 00
Marine Insurance 1¾c	87 50
Discount on draft 60 days on Baltimore to pay for same, 5,500 at 2¼ per ct	121 25
Freight ½d or 1 cent	500 00
Commission for purchasing and negotiating 2½ per ct	125 00
Loss in interest from the day of purchase to the day of delivery in Liverpool, 60 days	55 00
	5,913 75

From the above table (and it is correctly stated,) the party buying here for foreign account saves, on 100 bales, $165 73, or about 3¼ per cent.

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ART. XIII—GALLERY OF INDUSTRY AND ENTERPRISE.

MAUNSEL WHITE, MERCHANT, OF NEW-ORLEANS.

With a Portrait.

No. 26.

THE name of Maunsel White has been familiar in New-Orleans during the whole period of its American history, and he has ever sustained the reputation of a good man, a useful citizen, an enterprising and irreproachable merchant. His commercial operations have indeed given him high position throughout the whole Valley of the Mississippi.

Col. White arrived in this country from Ireland in early youth, and reached New-Orleans in 1801, when it was hardly more than a respectable village, and when only scattering settlements were to be found on the waters of the Ohio or the Mississippi as low down as Point Coupee.

If we had the materials for a full biography, it would hardly be necessary in New-Orleans, where Col. White is so well known, to give it. He was at an early period member of council, and head of the Finance Committee, and in that capacity suggested the plan which has worked so well of making property contribute to the expense of paving the streets, and also a plan for protecting the city from inundations. Had the latter been adopted, our subsequent insecurity and losses would have been prevented. As head of the Finance Committee, Col. White was succeeded by our worthy citizen, Samuel J. Peters, to whom he pointed out treasury errors, which that gentleman with characteristic zeal investigated, exposing in the result some very serious defalcations. In 1846, Col. White was elected to the Senate from the Parish of Plaquemine, and served during four years, occupying prominent positions on the Committees of Finance and Commerce, and very frequently the Presidency, *pro tem.*, of the body. He was appointed by Governor Johnson one of the administrators of the University, and has served ever since very faithfully and assiduously, donating liberally to the institution, as we have had occasion to mention before.

During the invasion of Louisiana by the British, Col. White, at the head of one of the city volunteer companies, repaired to the standard of Gen. Jackson, and was present in most of the engagements which conferred so much honor upon that officer, and upon our gallant citizen soldiery. General Jackson, to the close of his life, remembered kindly, and often adverted to the services of Col. White, there having sprung up on the battle-field an acquaintance between them which ripened into a friendship long and uninterrupted. Perhaps one of the very last letters written by the old hero was to Col. White.

Col. White married into the family of the late Gen. P. De La Ronde, who was also an intimate friend of Gen. Jackson.

In all the purposes of public improvement and reform which for the past few years have been attracting so much attention in New-Orleans, no one was more enlightened and active than Col. White. As President of one of the Rail-road Conventions, and as Chairman of the Executive Committee afterwards, his course gave the most entire satisfaction, and was highly commended. Had not financial reverses come upon him at this juncture, his subscriptions to public improvements would have equaled that of any citizen of Louisiana.* He was an early and consistent advocate of the consolidation of the Municipalities, and supported the new Constitution of the State, as a measure indispensable to her prosperity, though requiring many amendments.

The charities and good offices of Col. White have been numerous, and many there are who will treasure his memory long after his place shall have become void among us, It is not fitting to mention them here. Our worthy citizen has long experienced, and we hope long will, that—

"What nothing earthly gives or can destroy,
The soul's calm sunshine and the heartfelt joy,
Is virtue's prize."

* Col. White has again resumed commercial business. In a note which we received from him last summer, and from which we take the liberty of extracting, he says: "I am now working silently, and I think surely, to the accomplishment of my views, viz: the payment of all the debts due of the late firm, and the collection of the debts due to them. Full of confidence in my own integrity, and with the blessing of God, I made up my mind to bring everything I had under the hammer. The result is, that peace of mind which no merely worldly prosperity could ever give." The least the papers who published the *suspension* could do would be to publish the *resumption* also.

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ART. XIV.—EDITORIAL—LITERARY—MISCELLANEOUS, ETC.

FAIR OF SOUTH CAROLINA INSTITUTE—HINT TO SUGAR PLANTERS—SLAVERY AND FANATICISM—VIRGINIA RAIL-ROADS AND CANALS—POEM ON THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER—HEALTH OF NEW-ORLEANS AND CHARLESTON—YELLOW FEVER—OPERATIONS IN REMOVING THE OBSTRUCTIONS AT THE BAR OF CHARLESTON AND AT THE MOUTH OF THE MISSISSIPPI—NEW BOOKS, PAMPHLETS, ADDRESSES, ETC.—EDITORIAL NOTES, ETC.

We had the pleasure of attending, in November last, the great *Fair of the South Carolina Institute*, at Charleston, South Carolina. Many of the prominent gentlemen of that and the neighboring states were present, and the exhibition of agricultural and mechanical products was in the highest degree interesting and creditable. A special building was erected for the purposes of the exhibition, which for more than a week was crowded, night and day, with the intelligence, wealth and beauty of the city. But for the unhealthiness of the past season in Charleston, the attendance and exhibition would have been much larger. We cannot doubt that the most beneficial and permanent results will accrue from the action of the association.

The list of articles on exhibition numbered about 300. We saw ladies' work, gins, manufactured cloths, carriages, cotton gins, paintings, guns, glass work, shell work, boots and shoes, hats, baskets, saddles, boats, stoves, stationery, paper, iron work, olive oil, rope, gunnery, rice, sugar, cotton, horses, colts, calves, pigs, dogs, sheep, steam-engines, &c., in great variety and of various excellence. The poultry exhibition was never equalled before in the southern country; and from its variety, rarity and extent, afforded delight to every one.

During the fair, several regattas took place in the harbor, which were witnessed by tens of thousands of the citizens, who crowded every wharf and every window fronting upon the broad bay which stretches out from the battery. Charleston seemed, indeed, in her holiday clothes. So much life and excitement was hardly witnessed before.

The annual address was delivered by Edwin Ruffin, Esq., of Virginia, a gentleman long and favorably known to the agricultural world. It was able and practical, and appears in another part of the present number of the Review. Mr. Soulé, of Louisiana, was also expected to take part, but business prevented his appearance, which was a serious disappointment to his thousands of friends and admirers.

At the complimentary dinner given to Mr. Ruffin, speeches were delivered by that gentleman, and also by J. H. Couper, and Judge Whitsell of Georgia; Hon. R. F. W. Allston, Hon. Isaac E. Holmes, William Gregg, Professor Holmes, Mr. Pressly, Mr. Hart, Mr. Lawton of Charleston, and J. D. B. De Bow of Louisiana. The occasion was one of great hilarity, and will long live in our memory. Success to the noble movement which our friends in Carolina are making for the promotion of southern industry, and may its influences extend far and wide. We shall recur to the subject again.

A friend in Louisiana has sent us the certificate of a sugar planter, of British Guiana, Isaac Henry, Esq., as to some matters of practical application there in regard to the *sugar crop and sugar machinery*, which he thinks may be of use to our planters. The character and standing of Mr. Henry, and his experience as a planter, are vouched for by the American consul resident in Guiana. The gentleman who sends us the certificate is prepared to execute orders for the machinery, dippers, &c., and to set the double batteries, flood-gates, &c. The certificate is as follows:

"Plantation La Penitance,
"*County of Demerara, British Guiana,*
"16*th Sept.*, 1852.

"By request of Mr. G. de Bretton, of Louisiana, I hereby certify that the double batteries in use on this plantation, as well as on most of the other sugar plantations in this country, possess several important advantages above the old mode of single batteries. In the first place, the two fires meeting under the other kettles, causes a much greater ebullition, and, consequently, a greater evaporation. Secondly, There is a great saving of fuel and labor, as one set of kettles with double batteries will almost do the work of two sets with single batteries, in consequence, as above stated, of the fire from both batteries concentrating under the other kettles in the train. Thirdly, The cane juice being a shorter time exposed to the action of the fire, the sugar is, therefore, of a much fairer quality.

"I must also certify as to the utility of the sugar dipper in use on this estate, as well as on all others throughout this country. In fact, they are indispensable, where double batteries are used, and is an invention of much importance, as they take off the whole

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strike of sugar at once, and all of the same consistency, causing thereby a less quantity of molasses.

"The above are great improvements in the manufacture of Muscovado sugar, and worthy the attention of sugar planters."

We continue to receive, through J. B. Steel, the numbers of Lippincott, Grambo & Co.'s edition of *Sir Walter Scott's novels*, which are printed in beautiful style and on fine white paper, with illustrations. The work will be published in 24 parts, semi-monthly, each containing a complete novel. We have now before us Rob Roy and the Black Dwarf. From the same house we received *Wild Western Scenes;* or, Adventures in the West, with humorous designs—embracing exploits of Daniel Boon, bear, deer and buffalo hunts, conflicts with savages, wolf hunts, &c. Mr. Steel also sends us the *History of the Mormons*, or Latter Day Saints, in the Valley of the Great Salt Lake, by Lieut. Gunnisson, of the Topographical Engineers. The work, in treating of the rise, progress, doctrines, &c., of this singular order, and of the country which they inhabit, is one necessarily of great interest, and will receive more elaborate attention from us hereafter. We make the same remark in regard to *Cassiday's History of Louisville from the earliest settlement till* 1852, which Mr. Steel has kindly furnished us. It is a carefully prepared work, covering a wide and interesting field, valuable in facts and statistics, and affording material for quite an interesting article which we shall furnish.

Mrs. Eastman has written, perhaps, the very best answer to that gross libel upon the South, denominated "Uncle Tom's Cabin." She has entitled her work *Aunt Phillis' Cabin, or, Southern Life as It Is*; and has furnished many admirable and truthful pictures, contrasting the slave of the South with the free laborer of other countries. The work is already popular, but can we expect the remedy to extend as far as the poison has so quickly gone? If any one will prepare for us a review of this new class of literature which is springing up, and of which Mrs. Stowe's work was the precursor, we shall be most pleased to publish it. Indeed, if time admits, and nobody else will undertake the task, we almost feel determined to set about it ourself. Mr. Thompson, of the Literary Messenger, Richmond, has set the example by preparing for his own journal a most triumphant vindication of the South. In the preface to Mrs. Eastman's book, she says of abolitionism: "Born in fanaticism, nurtured in violence, it exists. Turning aside the institutions and commands of God, treading under foot the love of country, despising the laws of nature and the nation, it is dead to every feeling of patriotism and brotherly kindness, full of strife and pride, strewing the path of the slave with thorns, and of the master with difficulties—accomplishing nothing good, forever creating disturbance."

A friend in Virginia has kindly sent us a circular, showing the liabilities and resources of Lynchburgh, from which we perceive that the liabilities reach $398,990, of which $50,000 was for the water works, $52,000 for James River Canal, $283 for Virginia and Tennessee Rail-road Company. The resources of the city are valued at $387,620. Upon the subject of the *James River Canal*, the circular says:

"This work is finished to Buchanan, a distance of 196¼ miles from Richmond. When time and experience shall have proven the fallacy of making state interests subservient to federal politics, and sectional jealousies shall have given way to a desire for the general good, this great work will be sustained and pushed forward as the main artery of the state, on whose capacious tide the immense tonnage that lies land-locked in the region it was designed to penetrate, will be borne through the centre of the state to the sea-board. Then will this work take its true position, and its stock approximate that due appreciation which time will and must give it. The tonnage and travel have greatly increased during the present year; and when the North River improvement is completed, and the Virginia and Tennessee Rail-road, stretching one arm towards Tennessee, and the other towards Kentucky and Ohio, shall begin to attract the immense tonnage of those regions, there is every reason to anticipate a very large increase of its annual revenues—especially if enlightened policy shall dictate a judicious revision of its present tariff of tolls. The capital of this company is $5,000,000, three-fifths of which is owned by the State of Virginia.

In regard to the *Virginia and Tennessee Road*, we have the following: (Will not gentlemen in Virginia complete our information upon the rail-road system of that state?)

"Fifty miles of the most difficult part of this road have been completed and equipped, and an additional ten miles (to Salem) will be finished by the 1st day of December. It has already passed the Blue Bridge, is laid with a heavy U rail, and, when completed, will extend from Lynchburgh to the Tennessee line, a distance of 205 miles, where it will connect with other improvements of a like character, extending to Memphis on the Mississippi river, thus affording, when the South-side and Petersburgh and Norfolk Rail-roads are completed, a continuous line of communication from Norfolk, Richmond and Petersburgh

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to Memphis, and that through the portion of our state most remarkable for its fertility and agricultural products, and the abundance of its water-power for manufacturing purposes: not to speak of the magnificent cabinet of minerals which Nature, from her vast laboratory, has deposited along the route selected for this road, and which, like the treasures in the cave of the Genii, remains hid from mortal sight, only awaiting 'the tramp of the iron horse' to cause the charmed doors to fly open and exhibit the gorgeous display to the astonished gaze of the world. The capital of this company is $3,000,000, of which the state owns three-fifths. The whole of this work is now under contract, and is to be completed by the first day of January, 1855. Before that day, however, the rich products of the southwest—its salt, lead, copper, iron, gypsum, coals of various kinds, &c., &c., will have commenced to pour through this grand thoroughfare in a stream that will waken the drowsy energies of commerce in our old mother state, and quicken the already active pulse of trade in our own thriving city. From the large and increasing business which this road is now doing in tonnage and travel, we feel authorized in putting it down as an 8 per cent. stock: some think it will pay even more."

* The following embodies many beautiful thoughts, and is one of the most appropriate tributes ever received by the old "Father of Waters." It is from the pen of a young poetess, whose laurels are clustering thick, and who, in the fulness of time, must become one of the first stars in our literary constellation. She is at present one of the editors of the Ladies' Book, published in New-Orleans, a monthly, beautifully printed and illustrated, and quite equal to and more worthy of patronage at home than any of those of the North.

THE MISSISSIPPI.*

Strong, deep, restless, through Columbia's heart
Thou rollest, mighty river! coursing on
Like some great, shining thought Omnipotence
Has awakened in its depths.

Sublime, serene,
Through summer's gorgeousness, or winter's gloom,
When glassing back the sunshine, or the dark
And tempest-tossed battalions in the sky—
And like a great soul, beautifully calm,
When star-showers fall, as though the frenzied gods
Would weep upon thy bosom tears of flame.

Most beautiful art thou! majestical,
And panoplied in grandeur, by repose,
As others by the tempest. Thine is not
The crested multitude of warrior-waves
That boom and battle on the "stormy Gulf;"
The wild Atlantic billows, shivering white
Upon deceitful breakers, murmuring
Low curses round their torturers; nor yet
The rush of rapids, gloom and glory blent,
Where might and madness struggle in the heart
Of dread Niagara. But glorious
And lovely as the "Milky Way"—the stream
Of light that courses through a starry land
And far beyond the night-cloud, is to thee
What leaves of heaven are to the loved on earth!
Thou too art flowing through the "land of stars,"
A blessed bond of "Union." Never may
Its links be sundered, till the sky-stream fades
In ether, and its golden shores dissolve
To nothingness!

Tell us, when far away
In Time's gray dawning, still the nations slept,
Did'st thou all proudly cleave the wilderness,
As sweeps a mighty vision through the brain
Of slumbering Titan? Tribes of long ago
Whose path of empire lies amid the clouds
Of mystery, have fled, and left no voice
To whisper their glories. Warrior-chiefs
Whose council-circle on thy margin shone,
The Indian maid whose shallop swept thy wave,
Swift as the swallow's pinion, too have passed
As foam from off the billow. Now the Power
That rules an iron-arteried domain—
Sails with the steam-fiend—chains the fiery tongue
Whose voice is in the hurricane—and make
A slave of wild Impossibility—
The Genius of my country furls his wing
O'er thy broad bosom. Still thou art the same,
And hoary centuries shall fall, like plumes
Slow-dropping from the weary wing of Time,
Yet leave thee changeless, proud, and stately stream.

No haughty heights are here, like those that pour
Red lava to the equinoctial sun,
No mural palisades of iron ice
As curb the surges of the frozen Pole;
Yet one may stand on thy long, wooded shores,
And, from the summit of some mountain thought
Gaze forth upon a continent of time,
Beholding too, how dark behind it lies
Eternity inscrutable—before
Eternity incomprehensible.

Thou hast a voice, proud river, and my soul
Springs forth to meet its lessons, like a child
To meet its mother's smile. The morning brings
Thy soft, clear hallelujah, and my heart
Echoes in unison, "praise God! praise God!"
The deep meridian reigneth, light, and strength,
Have met upon the waters, teaching me
That power is only greatness, when 'tis blent
With truth immutable. 'Tis midnight lone,
Yet, bearing on the steamer's stately form,
I hear thy never-resting waters flow,
And murmur as they glide—"oh! weary not,
LIFE lies in action, and the use of Time
Is DESTINY."

* It has been decided that the name Mississippi is composed of two words, *Messes* (great,) and *Seppe* (river,) consequently the original signification is the "Great River," and not the "Father of Waters."

Mr. Thompson of the *Literary Messenger* has in preparation a work to be entitled the "Authors and Writers of the South," which, with brief biographies, will include selections, etc. The Messenger itself is one of the best repositories of such material, and is deserving of a circulation in every part of the Union.

We regret to understand that the *Southern Quarterly Review* is not sustained so well as its eminent merits should claim. Mr. Simms has labored assiduously in the service of the work, and has deserved a better reward from the Southern people. As an author he has been untiring, and the most of his illustrations have been taken at home. We have before us now his last work, entitled the "Sword and Distaff," a capital story, the chief incidents of which are of the revolutionary period, and are located in South Carolina. No man of his age in America has

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written so much as Mr. Simms, and many of his novels have had wide and deserved reputation both in this country and in Europe. In the same position with the Quarterly is the *Literary Gazette*, to which Mr. Simms contributes, and which is edited by Mr. Hayne, one of the most talented gentlemen and finished *belles-lettres* scholars yet sent out by our old alma mater, the College of Charleston.

The New-Orleans Medical Journal speaks consolingly of the future prospects of New-Orleans. It regards the yellow fever as accidental and not original, and a disease that may be expelled by sanatory regulations. The summer which has just passed has been one of unusual health. The following is the list of deaths for the weeks ending

1852.	Cholera.	Fevers.	Y. Fev.	Total.
Aug. 21.....	13.....	27.....	6.....	135
" 28.....	18.....	33.....	2.....	158
Sept. 4.....	14.....	38.....	11.....	148
" 11	30.....	48.....	15.....	175
" 18.....	35.....	35.....	19.....	194
" 25.....	28.....	55.....	23.....	209
Oct. 2.....	9.....	46.....	23.....	154
" 9.....	12.....	61.....	35.....	175
" 16.....	11.....	66.. ...	50.....	180
Total.....	170	409	184	1528

In Charleston, on the other hand, the present season has been disastrous in many respects, though more from false and exaggerated rumors than from the actual mortality. The first case of yellow fever took place, says the Charleston Medical Journal, on the 8th August, from that period the deaths ranged from 15 to 45 weekly, and the total of deaths up to 1st November, when the disease ceased, was 279. The number of deaths in 1838, before the city and Neck were consolidated, was 353. The disease was, for the most part, in its fatal effects, confined to the Irish and other foreign residents.

When in Philadelphia last summer we were presented by Mr. Job Tyson, whose acquaintance we were happy to form, with a copy of his admirable "Letters on the Resources of Philadelphia," addressed to the British Consul, Mr. Peter. The letters are classical as well as statistical, and we shall hereafter extract liberally from them. Mr. Tyson also presented us a copy of his address before the Girard College.

Prof. Holmes, of the College of Charleston, who was kind enough to exhibit to us the magnificent museum of natural history and geology which has been collected in one of the halls of the institution, presented us at the same time a copy of his report upon the nature of the "Borings" now being conducted by Capt. Moffitt, at the bar of Charleston, in order to remove the impediment to its navigation. In the opinion of Capt. Moffitt, the existence of a bed of calcareous or limestone rock in the channel would greatly promote the chances of success in deepening the Bar, a matter of vital importance to Charleston if she would carry out her steamship lines to Europe, etc. The same importance attaches to our own movements at the mouth of the Mississippi, as was fully shown in our December No., and we are glad to see that a Tow Boat Company have now undertaken the work for the money appropriated by Congress. In regard to Charleston, Prof. Holmes says:

"*The borings have been made*, the extension of these beds of calcareous limestone rocks *proven*, and the practicability of deepening the Bar is no longer a doubtful *question*.

"It would be presumption in me, even to intimate the mode of accomplishing this great desideratum, but with deference I may be permitted to suggest, that the excavation be extended to eight or nine feet below the surface of the calcareous bed, which is of such consistency as to resist the erosive action of currents and waves, and preserve the walls of the submarine canal.

"The sand accumulating with the flood tide, will undoubtedly be removed by the four-knot current of the ebb."

In the October number of the Review we extracted a page or two from the work of Mr. Wheeler, on the *History of North Carolina*, and by mistake credited to Mr. Williams. The work has had extensive circulation, and is well worth the study and perusal of the very many citizens not only of our state, but of the whole valley of the Mississippi, who have emigrated from the good, old and unpretending State of North Carolina, and who are proud of their "fatherland." It proves that North Carolina was the first state of the old thirteen, upon which the colonists landed (in 1584), the first in which the blood of the colonists was spilled in defence of the principles of liberty (in 1771), and the first to declare their independence of the English crown at Charlotte, in May, 1775.

We have lately received in pamphlet form two addresses upon the death of *Henry Clay*, one by W. H. MacFarland, Esq., of Richmond, and the other by Alexander McClung, of Miss. They are both interesting productions, reflecting honor upon the heads as well as hearts of their authors. Mr. Macfarland tells us, "as we meditate upon the illustrious life of Mr. Clay, our faith in the reality of public virtue, and in the certainty of Christian truth, grows stronger." Mr. McClung, most eloquently and truthfully adds: "His memory needs no monument. He wants no mausoleum of stone or marble to imprison his sacred dust. Let him rest amid the tokens of the freedom he so much loved. Let him sleep on where the whistling of the tameless winds—the ceaseless roll of the murmuring waters—the chirping of the wild bird, and all which speaks of liberty, may chant his eternal lullaby."

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Jefferson Davis delivered the last annual address before the *Societies of the University of Mississippi*. The effort was worthy of his reputation as a man of high intellect and scholarship, a good citizen and pure patriot. His concluding remarks are worthy of note:

"If I am competent to form an opinion in a case where I am certainly not free from prejudice, there is enough of talent, enough of energy in the youth of Mississippi to warrant the expectation that they will reach the highest degree of attainment, and in their day and generation, as circumstances may permit, fill the brightest pages of their country's history. Such is the cherished hope of him who addresses you. Of him who, as a Mississippian, has spent a large portion of his life in the service of his country; whose heart from youth to age has ever beat responsive to the demands of Mississippi's interest and honor; who has rejoiced in the power and glory of the Union, and loved it for the objects it was established to secure; who has striven against the perversion of its grants, as the means of destroying either the Union, or the more sacred ends for which it was founded, and who now appeals to you by all that is ennobling in the memories of the past, and inspiring in the anticipations of the future, that you will address yourselves earnestly to that highest duty of a citizen, to know and to maintain the permanent welfare of his country; and that, at whatever sacrifice, you will discharge your trust to guard and to uphold the principles confided to your care as an inheritance for all posterity."

The Rev. J. H. Thornwell's *Report on the Subject of Slavery*, preached to the Synod of South Carolina, is a masterly paper, which, whilst it defends the rights of the South, marks out the duty of the Christian master in all the matters of moral and religious culture of the slave, &c. The South has an important part to perform, and will conscientiously do it, if left alone by the meddlesome and officious people who have hitherto so much interfered with the true happiness of the negro. The *Lemmon case* in New-York is the last of these acts of aggression, and it would have set the South on fire again but for the liberal and patriotic course of the merchants of New-York, who, in raising the amount necessary to indemnify the master for the loss of his slaves, and in furnishing the means requisite to carry up the case before the highest court of appeal, evidenced their determination to protect the laws and constitution of their country. We cannot doubt that the opinion of Judge Payne will be reversed as false in principle, subversive of the rights of the South in the Union, and calculated to lead to the most mischievous consequences. We cannot quit this subject without recurring to a case which happened during our stay in New-York last summer, and of which the particulars were furnished us at the time. Mr. Simonds, of New-Orleans, executor under the will of Mr. Creswell, arrived in New-York with thirty-eight slaves for the purpose of emancipating them. His plan of sending them into the country was interfered with by the abolitionists, who persuaded the negroes that the purpose was again to sell them into slavery. The largest proportion of them therefore refused to go. Having interrogated Mr. Simonds in regard to their condition afterwards, we received in reply a note, from which a brief extract will be interesting:

"Most, if not all, of those that refused to leave the city of New-York have done very badly. Some are in the most abject and degraded condition. Several of them have *begged* me to take them back with me—saying I might *keep them as slaves*, or *sell them*—that they were happy before and wretched now.

"There was, among these emancipated slaves, a very interesting quadroon girl, about 12 years old, in whom I had taken special interest. Agreeably to her wish, I had procured her a most desirable situation. A highly respectable merchant of New-Orleans had agreed to take her to Vermont to his mother, who had no young children, to be by her brought up and educated as one of the family. Accordingly the gentleman started with her from New-Orleans in companionship with his own daughter, of about the same age. I was to meet him in New-York, and furnish the girl with her emancipation papers. But on the gentleman's arriving at Buffalo, and just before the steamer landed, the emancipated girl was kidnapped by abolitionists, transferred to a British steamer and conveyed to Canada.

"The gentleman having her in charge, employed an attorney-at-law, and spent several days in the endeavor to recover her. He went over to Canada, and ascertained where she was, but was not permitted to see her. He was even in imminent danger of being mobbed.

"In the New-York Tribune of July 19th, is published a letter, dated St. Catharine's, Canada, *boasting* of the abduction and rescue from a slaveholder.

"On my arrival at New-York with the other slaves, a friend showed me the letter in the "Tribune," and informed me that he had addressed the writer, stating the facts, and urging him to send the girl to New-York, to be properly disposed of by me. In the answer, which he afterwards received and showed me, he met with a flat refusal and a volley of abuse of the 'inhuman and hellish slaveholders.'

"I presume the girl is still in Canada. Whatever may be her condition, it cannot be *any better* than that I had secured for her.

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J. W. Randolph, of Richmond, sends us a copy of a *Plantation and Farm Book*, which he has published, the object of which is to promote the more systematic management of our estates. It contains blank pages, ruled and lettered for inventories of negroes, stock, utensils, products, etc., with rules and regulations in regard to a hundred matters of plantation management and detail. In truth, we consider it an invaluable work for planters. It can be had from J. B. Steel, of New-Orleans. We shall refer to it again.

Through T. L. White, Bookseller, New-Orleans, we have received several of the valuable series of scientific and practical works, which Henry C. Baird, of Philadelphia, is now issuing from the press. These volumes are handsomely executed, and they are calculated to advance very greatly the progress of the arts in our country, by diffusing the most valuable practical information at an insignificant cost. The volumes before us embrace:

1. The *Arts of Tanning and Leather Dressing*, from the French, with emendations and additions by Campbell Morfit, chemist, with 200 engravings, 550 pages. The volume is prefaced with a portrait of Zadoc Pratt, the great American tanner, and gives all the details of his extensive operations.

2. *Electrotype Manipulation*, or the theory and practice of working in metals, by C. V. Walker, with wood-cuts.

3. *Complete Practical Brewer*, by Dr. M. L. Byrn.

4. *Pyrotechnist's Companion*, or a familiar system of recreative fire-works, by G. W. Mortimer.

5. *Rural Chemistry*, in relation to agriculture and the arts of life, by Edmund Solly, F. R. S. A very valuable volume for planters, who should all study it.

6. *A Treatise on Screw Propellers*, and their steam-engines, with rules to calculate or construct the same; and also, a Treatise on Bodies in motion in fluid, by J. W. Mystrom.

We have been favored with a paper from J. W. Scott, of Toledo, one of the best statistical writers in the country, upon the commerce of that city, which shall appear in our next, when we expect also to resume the publication of the interesting papers upon "*Taxation, Ancient and Modern*," which have been interrupted, as the author, Judge Shortridge, informs us, by unavoidable causes.

CLOSING NOTE.

Subscribers to the Review, who have not paid up their dues, will ask themselves if it is fair and just to us. In the universal prosperity of the country now, towards which our labors for many years have contributed, ought we not to be among the very first remembered? What we ask is small, and has been earned ten times over. Remittances are frequently neglected from an oversight. Many think that another time will do as well, and thus they embarrass us without serving themselves. Our bills have all gone out—we ask the money or orders upon merchants, assuming ourselves all risks, and acknowledging payments on the cover. If there are errors in accounts, we are prepared to correct—if numbers have not been received, we are prepared to supply them. In fact, we want to do everything that is right, and want every one to do the same to us. Our expenses have been greatly increased in the improvements now made upon the Review.

Again, we solicit orders for the new work we have published, entitled INDUSTRIAL RESOURCES OF THE SOUTH AND WEST, of which, prospectus appears in another place, and of which the general index appeared in December number. It is embraced in three large and beautifully bound volumes, and supplies a mass of information which can be had from no other source. It is intended to bind the volumes of the Review, hereafter, every six months, uniformly with these, and no subscriber should be without the complete set. We have incurred an enormous expense upon the work, and appeal to the friends of the South for reimbursement. Subscribers who wish their volumes of the Review bound, can always have it done at the office, at cost. We trust it will not be considered immodest, from the numerous complimentary letters which the publication of the "Industrial Resources" has induced, to extract from one addressed to us by the Hon. George Bancroft, the brilliant historian of the United States, a man whose good opinions upon such matters are very gratifying to us to have won. He says:

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A [illegible] JOURNAL [illegible]

OF

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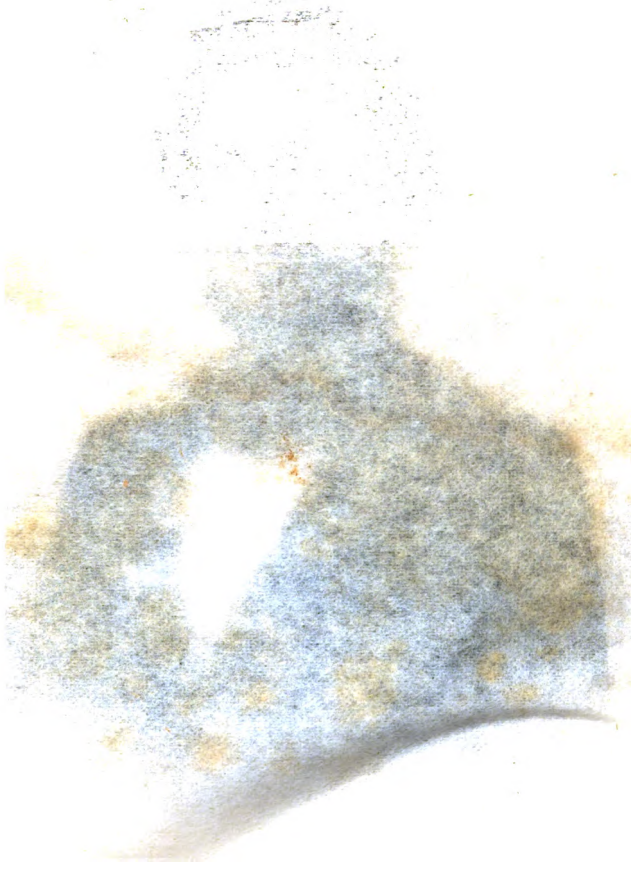
[illegible] JANUARY [illegible]

[illegible] MARCH, 1852.

[illegible] ISLAND OF CUBA: PAST AND PRESENT.

[illegible]—PROSPECTUS—PROSPECTS OF THE [illegible]—POLITICAL REPORT—[illegible]—[illegible]—[illegible]



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DE BOW'S REVIEW,

A MONTHLY JOURNAL

OF

COMMERCE, AGRICULTURE, MANUFACTURES, INTERNAL IMPROVEMENT, STATISTICS, ETC., ETC.

ESTABLISHED JANUARY 1, 1846.

VOL. XIV. FEBRUARY, 1853. No. 2.

ART. I.—THE ISLAND OF CUBA—PAST AND PRESENT.

GEOGRAPHY—NATURAL HISTORY—MINERALS—CIVIL AND POLITICAL HISTORY—PRODUCTS—SOIL—CLIMATE—HEALTH—POPULATION—GENERAL RESOURCES—REVENUES AND EXPENDITURES—SYSTEM OF SLAVERY—GOVERNMENT, LAWS, ETC.

[WE promised in our last a paper which should examine our political relations with the island of Cuba, but are prevented from giving it by the length of the present article, by a gentleman of New-Orleans, which is full of valuable information, and which it would not have been well to divide.

We may say in brief, however, that the administration and laws of the island of Cuba are matters with which we have no more concern than with those of France or Hindostan, except as subjects of history, and that in this regard only we make any reference to them. We do *not* believe in "manifest destiny," in "forcible intervention," in *propagandism* of political more than religious tenets, and have quite as little faith in what is called the "Monroe doctrine," but which has come to be a very different thing from what was intended in the sentiments of that cabinet.

In regard to Cuba, it will only be necessary for us to quote the opinion which we ventured three years ago in the Review, Vol. IX. 173, and which we have seen nothing yet to change—"No one can doubt at this moment, there is a well fixed and almost universal conviction upon the minds of our people that the possession of Cuba is indispensable to the proper development and security of the country. We state the fact without entering into the reason, or justifying it, that such a conviction exists. Call it the lust of dominion—the restlessness of democracy—the passion for land or gold—or the desire to render our interior impregnable, by commanding the keys of the gulf—the possession of Cuba is still an American sentiment, not to be sure a late, but a growing and strengthening one. * * * * There are honorable means of achieving the purpose, and if these fail, the purpose itself becomes dishonorable. * * Let us negotiate with the cabinet of Madrid, as we did with that of Versailles. Perhaps * * * * *Should these negotiations fail, honor and the preservation of national faith demand that we give no countenance to any movements hostile to the cause of Spain in the island.*"]—EDITOR.

No portion of the insular world has, of late years, attracted more attention than Cuba, the Queen of the Antilles,* the largest, richest, and most beautiful of the West India islands. It is now just 360 years since the eyes of the great Genoese navigator first beheld its bright shores glowing with all the beauty and luxuriance of Flora's fairest tropical creations. Cuba was then a brilliant gem set in the bosom of the ocean, fair as the fabled isle of Calypso, whose shores welcomed the wandering Ulysses, and whose sylvan beauties charmed even the dwellers of Olympus. We may well question whether indeed the genius of the author of the Odyssey, even in fancy, invested the famed Ogygian isle with half the scenic beauties that find reality, even now, along the shores of the Queen of the Antilles. When Columbus, wafted by breezes from its enchanting groves, first glided

* "*Antilæ Americæ dicuntur quasi ante insulas Americæ*," says an old historian. The idea was that America was only a large cluster of islands, instead of a continent, before which, that is, east of which, lay the Antilles. Some derive the term from the words *Ante Ilos*, (Forward Islands;) whilst others assert that in maps drawn before the existence of a new continent was known, the name Antilla was assigned to the supposed country west of the Azores, and that when Columbus first saw the Antilles, he gave them that name in consequence. Peter Martyr, who wrote in Latin only eight months after the return of Columbus from his first expedition, says: "He gives it out that he has discovered the island Ophir, but after carefully considering the world, as laid down by cosmographers, those must be the islands called Antillæ."

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along its peaceful shores, Cuba was a terrestrial paradise, fairer than aught that Mohammed or heathen mythology had ever conceived. Its inhabitants too, as is admitted by all of the earliest Spanish writers, were innocent and unsuspecting, docile and disinterested, gentle and generous. They received their destroyers with every mark of attention and courtesy, and with all the ingenuousness of their native innocence and simplicity.

The island, when first discovered, was divided into nine divisions, each having its own cacique, and all independent of one another. The greatest tranquillity everywhere prevailed, such was the peaceful disposition of the inhabitants. Wars and persecutions, the fruits of boasted civilization, had never devastated their shores, and filled their groves and vales with lamentations. Simple and happy as they were created, they lived and died in peace, their religion being limited to a belief in the immortality of the soul, and to the existence of a great and beneficent Being*—*un Dios remunerador*, as one of the Spanish writers expresses it—who held in wait for them the unfading rewards of a glorious immortality. Ages, for ought that we know, had rolled away in the peaceful enjoyment of what we are pleased to call a "savage existence."

Cuba, Spain's most valuable American possession, and the largest of the West India islands, was first called by the Spaniards *Juana*, in honor of Prince John, son of Ferdinand and Isabella. It afterwards was called *Ferdinandina*, after Ferdinand's death. Sometime afterwards it received the name of *Santiago*, from the patron saint of Spain, as a mark of reverence for the saint. To show their piety still farther, the inhabitants of the island gave it the name of *Ave Maria*, in honor of the Holy Virgin. The original name of the island, and the only one by which it was known to the aborigines when it was discovered by Columbus, was *Cuba*. Some of the old Spanish geographers called it *La Lengua de Pajaro*, the Bird Tongue, from their fancying its shape to be that of the tongue of a bird.

The form of the island is long and narrow, and somewhat that of an irregular crescent, with the convex side turned towards the north, the most northern portion of the curvature being nearly south of the southern extremity of Florida, the nearest distance between the two being about 124 miles, that is, from Point Hicacos, the most northern point of the island, to Cape Sable, the southern extremity of Florida. The western half of the island lies almost directly between Florida on the northeast, and the peninsula of Yucatan on the southwest, the western extremity of the island, Cape San Antonio, being 125 miles from Yucatan. The most western point of Cuba is in latitude 21° 54′ North; longitude 84° 57′ 15″ West. The most eastern extremity, Point Maysi, is in latitude 20° 16′ 40″ North; longitude 74° 7′ 53″ West; and 49 miles Northeast by East from Cape San Nicolas Mole, in Hayti; and Cape de Cruz, the most southern point of the island, in latitude 19° 20′ North, is about 95 from the most northern point of Jamaica. The length of the island, following a curved line through its centre from its two extremities, is 790 miles. In its broadest part, that is, from Cape Maternillos on the north, to Mota Cove on the south, is 117 miles wide. The width of the narrowest part of the island, from the mouth of Bahia del Mariel on the north, to Mayana Cove on the south, is 22 miles. A straight north and south line across the island from Havana measures 28 miles. Near the centre of the island the width is about 75 miles. Its coasts are very much indented, and it is surrounded by many islands, islets, reefs, &c. The periphery of the island, following a line cutting all the bays, ports, and coves at their mouth, is 1719 miles, the northern coast having an extent of 816 miles, and the southern 903. The great irregularity of the coasts has led to considerable differences in the estimated areas. Humboldt adopts the calculation of Don Felipe Bauza, who fixes the area at about 3615 square leagues, or 43,380 square English miles.* Mr. Turnbull estimates the area at only 32,807 square miles; others at 31,500,

* In the famous bull of Pope Alexander VI., in 1493, he thus speaks of the natives: "Certas insulas remotissimas et etiam terras firmas invenerunt, in quibus quamplurimæ gentes, pacifice viventes, nudæ incedentes, nec carnibus vescentes, inhabitant et, ut nuntii vestri possunt opinari, gentes ipsæ credunt unum Deum creatorem in cœlis esse."

* Humboldt: Essai sur l'Isle de Cuba, vol. i. p. 42.

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and others at 55,000 square miles, and including the adjacent islands belonging to it, at 64,000. Its area is probably about 50,000 square miles, or about that of the State of Alabama. A writer in the Havana *Diario de la Marina*, of January 1, 1852, fixes the area, including bays, ports, and roads, at 34,233 square miles.

No island on the globe, in proportion to its size, has a greater number of excellent harbors. On the northern coast there are 37, of which Bahia Honda, Havana, Matanzas, Nuevitas, Naranjo, Nipe, Seviza, and Panamo, are spacious bays, affording an anchorage to ships of the line. On the south shore, Puerto Escondido, Guantanamo, Santiago de Cuba, Masio, and Jagua, are harbors of the same capacity. A great many of these fine harbors, where magnificent cities would long since have sprung up under a good government, are to this day places as desert as when the isle was first discovered—360 years ago. There is now not even a fisherman's hut on their shores.

The land along the sea-shore, almost all around the island, is so low and flat as to be scarcely raised above the level of the sea, which greatly increases the difficulty, especially in the rainy season, of communicating with the interior. There are many large lagunes near the shore, especially on the north side, which, at high tide, are filled with salt water, and from which vast quantities of salt would be procured, were it not for the enormous tax imposed by the *enlightened* government of the island.

Of the 37 harbors on the north coast, and the 28 on the south, there are none that are not accessible to the largest schooners. From Cape de Maysi to Cape de Cruz on the south coast, and from Bahia Honda to Point Icacos on the north coast, the island is easy of access, and the coast navigation excellent. The rest of its coasts is guarded by reefs and islands, within which steamboat navigation is safe at all times of the year.

Rivers and Lakes.—The rivers are generally short, as they must necessarily be, and flow towards the north and south coasts. Some of them, from the mountainous nature of the country, are continuous torrents, while others are suddenly lost in chasms, or disappear in the swamps, without reaching the sea. Some of the small rivers are very picturesque, leaping from rock to rock, and forming at short intervals beautiful cascades, filling the mountains with their roarings and gurglings as they hasten onward to the sea. Others glide deep and silent between the lofty mountain ranges, reflecting in their limpid bosoms the enchanting tropical scenery that no pencil can imitate.

The largest river of Cuba is the *Cauto*, flowing from the Sierra del Cobre, and after a course of fifty leagues, emptying into the sea on the south side of the island, into the Bay of Buena Esperanza. It is navigable 20 leagues from its mouth, which, however, at low water, is obstructed by bars. The Sagua le Grande is also a beautiful river, rising in the Sierra del Escambray, flowing by Santo Domingo, and emptying into the sea in front of the Boca de Maravillas. It is navigable five leagues. The Sagua le Chica rises east of the Santa Clara, and forms a good road for vessels at its mouth. The north and south Iatibonica, rising in the Sierra de Matadambre, from a lagune, traverses that ridge, *running a league under ground*, and forms at its outlet a short but noisy cascade.

At the city of San Antonio, a few miles southwest of Havana, is a *subterranean river*, which can be seen through two openings in the earth, half a mile apart. Its course is extremely rapid, and the sound of its waters is distinctly heard. Pieces of wood thrown into the stream, through the openings at San Antonio, appear again on the coast several leagues distant. The island abounds in caverns, which often form the beds of subterranean streams. A well dug at San Antonio, some years ago, opened into one of these subterranean streams, the water of which now constantly gushes into it, never filling it, however, above a certain height.

In the Vuelta-abajo is a large stream called the Cuyaguateje, rising at the foot of the Cerro de Cabras, and traversing the valley of Luiz Laza, surrounded by inaccessible mountains. Under these mountains the river continues its course through a *natural tunnel*, called El Rosallero, which has been explored, and can be passed with the aid of torches. It receives many tributaries, and empties into the Bay of Cortes. It is navigable, and abounds with fish and alligators.

The river Sasa rises in Los Remedios, flows by Algodonal, and is deep and

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navigable. It empties into the sea on the south side of the island. Near Trinidad also is the mouth of the Agobama. The Hanabana is another large river on the south side of the island, which loses itself in the Laguna del Tesoro.

The whole number of permanent rivers in the island is seventy-five, but there is a large number of streams which become dry during the dry months of winter. Some of the rivers form beautiful cascades. The Moa, which rises in the Cuchillas de Toa, after dashing over many precipices, becomes submerged at the Sierra de Moa; but on its reappearance it forms a majestic cascade 300 feet high. It is in the extreme eastern part of the island.

There are several miniature lakes or lagunes in Cuba, generally communicating with the rivers or the bays. The Laguna de Ariguanabo, north of San Antonio, has an area of two square leagues, and a depth of eight yards. There are also the Laguna de Maya, east of the bay of Matanzas; the Laguna Grande, south of Guamutos; the Laguna Guanaroca, formed by an arm of the river Arimas; and about seven others, all small, and with little depth of water.*

MOUNTAINS—GEOLOGY.—Humboldt, we believe, is the only traveler who has attempted to give a scientific description of the isle of Cuba; so that little is known of the geology of the island beyond what is to be found in his *Essai sur l'Isle de Cuba*, written about half a century ago. His descriptions, however, so far as they extend, may be relied on, for the physical aspects and character of the island, as they are for the most part unchangeable. It is to be regretted that there are so few scientific men among our travelers.

A cordillera extends from one end of the island to the other, dividing it into two unequal sections; the northern being, for the most part, the narrower. The mountainous portion of the surface of the island is to the other portions, consisting of low lands, as 1 to 5. The highest mountains lie at the southeast extremity of the island, between Cobo Cruz, Punta Maysi and the Holguin. They are called Las Montañas del Cobre, and are situated northwest of Santiago de Cuba, and having an elevation, according to Humboldt, of about 1,200 toises, or 7,200 feet. The island is crossed from E. S. E. to W. N. W., by a chain of hills which approach the southern coast between the meridians of Puerto Principe and Villa Clara; while more to the west, towards Alvarez and Matanzas, they stretch towards the northern coast. The mountains called Lomas de San Juan, in lat. 21° 58′, and lon. 82° 40′, shoot up into needles or horns 1,800 feet high.

The entire extent of the Cuban cordillera is one great calcareous mass, resting on a schistose formation. The summits present a naked ridge of barren rocks, occasionally interrupted by more gentle undulations. The Lomas de San Juan presents a majestic aspect. West of Matanzas there is no hill more than 1,200 feet high, with the exception of the Pan de Guaixabon, north of the bay of Mulata, which has an elevation of about 2,100 feet. It has two peaks, of which the western is the greater, and is accessible only on the north side, the southern being precipitous.*

The land in the interior of the island is gently undulated, rising generally only from 270 to 300 feet above the level of the sea. The objects most visible at a distance, and most celebrated by navigators, are the Pan de Matanzas, (lat. 23° 2′ N., long. 84° 3′ 36″ W.,) having an elevation of 1,182 feet. The Arcos de Canasi, 1,380 feet, rising like a small segment of a circle between Puerto Escondido and Jaruca; the Mesa de Mariel, the Tetas de Managua, and the Pan de Guaixabon. The exact astronomical position of the two elevations called the Tetas de Managua is important, as marking the position of the harbor of Havana. They are, according to the most accurate calculations, in lat. 22° 58′ 19″ N., and long. 84° 40′ 19″ W.

The decreasing level of the limestone formations of the island of Cuba towards the north and west, indicates the submarine connection of those rocks with the lands equally low of the Bahama Islands, of Florida and Yucatan. The central and western parts of the island contain two formations of *compact lime-*

* Notes on Cuba, 1844. Humboldt: Essai sur l'Isle de Cuba. Turnbull's Travels in Cuba, 1840.

* The highest mountains in Cuba are mica slate, and through the secondary formations of the lower regions, project gneiss, granite and syenite. Veins of gold, silver and copper also occur here, and coal exists in a vein, which is a very rare occurrence—*Hitchcock's Geology*, revised edition, p. 338.

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stone, one of *clayey sandstone*, and another of *gypsum*. The limestone formations abound in caverns. The Sierra del Ancon is remarkable for its profound caverns, in which are found numerous bones of an unknown race. Great caverns abound near Matanzas and Jaruca.

The secondary formations, east of Havana, are pierced by syenitic and euphotide rocks, united in groups. The syenite strata are intercolated with serpentine, and incline to the northwest. Near Regla and Guanabacoa the syenite disappears, and the whole surface is serpentine, rising into hills from thirty to forty toises high, and running from east to west. This serpentine, (a specimen of which we have now before us,) is of an asparagus green, filled with veins of asbestos. In some places petroleum runs out of rents in the serpentine. Abundant springs of petroleum are also found in the eastern part of the island, between Holguin and Majari, and on the coast of Santiago de Cuba. The islet called Siguassa, near Punta Icacos, is composed entirely of solid earthy bitumen. Springs of water are frequent, containing sulphuretted hydrogen, and depositing oxide of iron.*

CLIMATE, HEALTH.—The climate of the western half of the island presents many inequalities, attributed to that portion of the island being situated along the northern limit of the torrid zone, and to the near neighborhood of the continent. It will be observed that the tropic of Cancer just touches the most northern point of the island a little to the east of Havana. The seasons are divided into the rainy and the dry, a division given generally to the seasons of the torrid zone by travelers, but in Cuba and elsewhere the line of demarcation is not very clearly defined. The warmest months are July and August, when the mean temperature is from 82° to 84° of Fahrenheit's thermometer. December and January are the coldest months, when the mean temperature is nearly 10° Fah. less than at the equator, or about 78° Fah. During the rainy season the heat would be insupportable but for the regular alternation of the land and sea breezes. The mean annual temperature of Havana is about 73.5° Fah.

* Humboldt: Essai sur l'Isle de Cuba—pp. 43-60.

There is no climate in the world more delightful, in winter and spring, or the dry season, as it is called, than that of Cuba. The summer rains cease about the first of November, and the regular trade-winds from the east set in. The sun during the dry season is warm enough to admit of summer clothing; but the nights are so cool that a woolen coverlet is necessary. A fresh breeze blows daily from 8 A. M., till sunset. Hail and frost are not uncommon in the winter season; and, at an elevation of 300 or 400 feet above the sea, ice is often seen several lines in thickness during the prevalence of north winds. The northers are violent and chilling, but seldom attended with rain after January. During the dry season the trees drop their leaves, and the herbage is parched, affording a scanty supply to cattle, which now require to be fed on the guinea-grass and sugar-canes that remain verdant all the year. The soil becomes dried to a great depth, but the dews are very heavy, and prevent the entire destruction of vegetation, which otherwise would follow from the burning heat of an almost vertical sun.

Hurricanes are not so frequent in Cuba as in Hayti and the other West India islands, and seldom do much damage on shore. They occur during the summer, from August to October.

Many fruits ripen towards the close of the dry season. The orange is in its greatest perfection about the end of April. The gardens thrive best during the early part of winter, and many flowers open in that season, the savannas being then all in bloom. The dry season continues until about the end of May, when the hot sun, aided by heavy showers, brings forth new vegetation with remarkable suddenness. The palms rapidly unfold their long fringed leaflets; the plantain unrolls its light green scrolls, and exposes its broad tender leaves to the strong winds; the coffee, the orange, and other trees put forth luxuriant growths of new wood, and the *portreros* now afford ample food for the half-famished cattle.

Summer being thus commenced, the trade-winds are less frequent, and the southwest winds are refreshing. The mornings until ten o'clock are sultry, but the mid-day and evenings are cool. The sun generally rises in a clear sky; but about nine o'clock clouds form in every

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quarter of the horizon, and unite into large dark masses, some of which are stationary, while others rise against the breeze that now blows daily from different points. About two o'clock the rain descends in torrents, the thunder rolls and lightnings flash fearfully. The wind, in a single squall, often changes to all points of the compass. The rain sometimes falls perpendicularly, unaccompanied by wind or thunder. No idea can be formed of the quantity that falls in a very short time, from the amount that descends in our latitude. Between four and five o'clock the rain ceases, the sky becomes clear, a delightful freshness is given to the air, and the evening is ushered in with a gorgeous sunset.

The summer nights are often so cool that it is necessary to close the windows. During the summer the dry beds of the rivers become full to overflowing, and the highways are here and there converted into deep and impassable quagmires.

In connection with this account of the climate of Cuba, it may be proper to make some observations on the health of the island. All the maritime towns are subject to the yellow or other malignant fevers from June till November. The interior of the island is as healthy as any part of the United States; fevers, chiefly intermittent, prevailing only along the streams and swamps. The red lands are the most healthy, sickness being there produced only by careless exposure.

During the dry season cattle frequently die of gangrene, the *pustule maligne* of the French; and the negroes are often attacked with it from handling the dead bodies of the animals.*

Animal Kingdom.—The only indigenous quadruped known in the isle of Cuba is the *jutia*, or *hutia*, an animal shaped like a rat, and from 12 to 18 inches in length, exclusive of the tail. It is of a clear black color, inhabits the hollows and clefts of trees, and feeds on leaves and fruits. Its flesh is insipid, but is sometimes eaten. A few deer are found about the swamps; but as they are not mentioned by the earlier writers on Cuba, they are supposed to have been introduced from the continent. They are the same as those of Florida. The woods are full of wild dogs and cats, derived from those which belonged to the French settlers who were suddenly expelled from the island. Although these animals have continued wild for many years, they differ from the domestic only in habits and size. These wild cats are very destructive to poultry, and prowl about the thickets on the borders of woods. They are described as beautiful animals. The wild dog resembles the wolf in form, having the peculiar drawn-up belly of the latter, a deep, narrow chest, and a light, agile form. They are also very destructive to poultry and cattle, even when they are domesticated. They are generally of a dark liver color, with black patches. They are short-lived, very remarkable for their scent, and are always chased by the domestic dog.

There are no venomous animals in Cuba, if we except the scorpion and a large spider resembling the tarantula, of neither of which is the sting at all dangerous. The snakes of the island, though large, are all harmless. Alligators are found mostly in extensive lagunes; and not a single ferocious animal is found in the forests. There are also but few troublesome insects. The musquitoes are chiefly confined to the low grounds; and the geegex, an insect about the size and shape of the flea, that burrows beneath the outer skin, and there forms a nest, seldom attacks the feet when protected by shoes and stockings.

The Cuban horse and ox are said to be valuable to those engaged in raising stock. The oxen are employed in drawing heavy wagons. They are managed by a rope passed through the septum of their nostrils. Their yokes are fastened to the horns. They are extremely well broken. The Cuban blood-hound is a peculiar breed of dogs, and somewhat of the build of the mastiff. He is used for tracing runaway slaves, for which he is trained. Besides the above animals, the Cubans have cows, hogs, sheep, goats and asses.

The ornithology of Cuba is exceedingly rich. The subject is quite too extensive for our pages, and we can only pass cursorily over it. The latest ornithologists enumerate more than 200 species of birds common in Cuba. The most complete work on the subject is

* Humboldt: *Essai*, etc., pp. 63–86. "*Notes on Cuba*, by a Physician,' 1844, pp. 293–301.

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that of Don Felipe S. Poey, of Havana. Without giving names, it is sufficient to say there are in Cuba all the birds known in this country, and others quite too numerous to mention. Many of the birds of Cuba are remarkable for the brilliancy of their plumage, though not for their song. Wild pigeons are very numerous.*

The rivers, bays and inlets of Cuba are well supplied with fish. Oysters and other shell-fish are abundant, but of inferior quality. The honey-bee is very common, and honey and wax are articles of export. The insects of Cuba, of the phosphorescent tribes, are very remarkable. Humboldt observes that nowhere between the tropics had he seen such an innumerable quantity of phosphorescent insects (*Cocuyo*, elater noctilucus) as in Cuba. The grass that covers the ground, and the branches and foliage of the trees, often are seen shining with their reddish movable light of varying intensity, according to the will of the animal. "It seemed," says Humboldt, describing them, "as if the starry firmament reposed on the savanna!"

In the huts of the poorest inhabitants of the country, fifteen or twenty of these fire-flies, confined in a calabash, pierced with holes, serve as a lantern for searching objects during the night. To cause them to give out a more intense light, and to prevent them from withholding their luminosity, which they have the power of doing, a slight shaking of the calabash is all that is necessary. While confined in the calabash, the insects are fed with sugar-cane. It is a saying among the common people, that "calabashes filled with *cocuyos* are lanterns always lighted." Humboldt relates, that on his voyage from Cuba to the Orinoco, the captain of the vessel would allow no other lights on board, these being sufficiently luminous for all ordinary purposes about the ship, and yet not sufficiently so to be visible to the pirates at a distance, who then infested the seas.†

Large droves of crabs on their way across the island are often witnessed in Cuba. They migrate over the land every spring, when the rains commence, from the sea on the north to the Caribbean sea on the south of the island, and are then taken in great numbers by the Creoles, who feed them for a week or two on hominy, until they lose the poisonous properties which they are supposed to have imbibed from feeding on the manzanillo. They resemble our common stone crabs, and have one large and one small claw, and a body about nine inches in circumference. They are of various hues, the dun colored being preferred for food. Vast armies of these crabs traverse the island from north to south, but never from south to north. The author of "Notes on Cuba," 1844, relates that on his way from Cardenas on the rail-road, he found the track literally covered with them; and that "so many had been crushed by the wheels of the engine the previous day that the iron rail become coated with their fat, and the cars made only a slow progress." He adds, that "they formed a close line for several miles in the ditches alongside the road, all moving in one direction, with distended open claws.".*

VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—The forests of Cuba are of vast extent, and rich in all the vegetable productions of the tropics. Mahogany and other hard woods are indigenous, and several sorts are well adapted to ship-building. The trees of the palm species are as remarkable for their beauty as for their utility. "Wine, oil, flax, flour, sugar and salt," says

* See a catalogue of Cuban birds, in "Notes on Cuba," p. 301.

† The author of "Notes on Cuba" thus describes the *cocuyos* of Cuba: "I passed one dark night through fields, where my path for a mile was in a sheet of tremulous phosphoric fire, spread over the ground more than a hundred yards wide. The air was also alive with them, darting in all directions like so many meteors; and the trees filled with them glowed as with ten thousand gems in perpetual motion, and emitting a lurid halo; while on the ground about me there swept by large patches of light from the bellies of the insects, that in the dark were themselves invisible, and mysteriously illuminated the surface for a full square yard. No idea can be formed of the brilliancy of their light from the sickly specimens brought to our country. The chief bright spot is on the under part of their bodies, about a quarter of an inch long, and an eighth of an inch wide. This, while they fly, resembles a burning taper, of the color of inflamed gas; and with the two large globes near their eyes, in their rapid movements produce a bright streak of light. The country ladies pin them to their bosoms through a natural hook near their heads, which gives them no pain; and also put them in the flounces of their dresses when dancing, where, excited by the motion, the insects resemble so many large diamonds. Pyramidal cages of split rushes are also filled with them, and hung in the piazzas as ornaments. They are a species of beetle transformed from a grub. They are about an inch and a half long and a quarter of an inch broad.—*Notes on Cuba*, pp. 288-9.

* Humboldt: *Essai*, etc., pp. 332-3. "*Notes on Cuba*," by a Physician, pp. 278, 301 and 312. The author of this work was the late Dr. Wurdman, of Charleston.

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Humboldt, "are the product of this species of tree:" to which Von Martius adds thread, utensils, food, weapons and habitations. The most common species is the cocoa-nut. Sago is a product of nearly all of them. Linnæus calls the palm the prince of the vegetable kingdom, from its noble and stately appearance. It is the queen of the Cuban forests and the most valuable tree on the island. It is from fifty to eighty feet high, with a straight smooth trunk from one to two feet in diameter. The top is six feet long, and composed of the foot-stalks of the leaves, and inclosing the embryo foliage. Each tree has twenty leaves, one of which is shed about every three weeks, leaving a circle of gum on the trunk, which remains indelible, and by the number of which the age of the tree can be calculated. It bears fruit when eighteen years old, and lives about two hundred years. The leaf stems are about fourteen feet long. The species here described is the *Palma real*, (oreodoxia regia,) and is the most common species of Cuba.

There are several other varieties of palm indigenous to the island. The cocoa tree and the African palm are found in all parts.

The *granadillo* (brya abenus) grows to the height of twelve feet, and is remarkable for the hardness and beautiful color of its wood. The *manzanillo* grows on the sea-coast to the height of twenty feet. Its fruit is used to poison dogs, "poisoned sausages" being unknown to the Cubans. The *jucaro bravo prieto* is a favorite wood for building, on account of its hardness and durability. It resembles our live oak, and attains the height of forty feet and a diameter of three feet. The flowers are very fragrant. The *quiebra hacha* is the celebrated break-axe tree, noted for its durability. It grows in the low grounds and flowers in May. The *ebano real* (dyos piros) is found in all parts of the island, having a diameter of one foot and a height of sixteen. It is a blacker wood than the *ebano carbonero* and more desirable. The *lignum vitæ* is also common. The *majagua* (hibiscus tiliaceus) is a fine wide-spreading tree, thirty-five feet high, with dull red flowers. It is remarkable for the strength of its bark, it being stronger than hemp. It is stripped from the tree, and without preparation, twisted into ropes. The *caoba* tree has a height of thirty feet and a diameter of five. The *cedro* (cedrela odorata) is fifty feet high, and six in diameter. It is very common, and much used in building.

The *jaguey macho* (ficus indica) is the most remarkable tree in Cuba. The author of "Notes on Cuba" says, "it is a *parasite* at first, and frequently sends from the topmost branches of the giant ceyba, or cotton tree, a small string down to the soil, which, as it approaches the earth, divides into numerous threads, each taking root. When about the thickness of a man's arm, although sometimes 20 feet from the trunk of the ceyba, it sends off a great many horizontal side suckers or roots, nearly fifty feet from the ground, all pointing towards the trunk of its foster parent. They at length reach it, encircle it on all sides, and increasing in strength and size, destroy it in their close embrace. The ceyba decays, and not a vestige of it is left; while the *jaguey macho*, with its multiplied arms and roots, soldered at every point into a curiously wrought trunk, and its irregular branches high in air, forms the most hideously shaped tree of the forest. When once it takes root no tree can resist its destructive grasp." It bears a fruit in May.

The forests of Cuba are so dense as to be almost impenetrable. Our pages will not admit of a description of the half of its valuable and curious trees. Cuba abounds in medicinal plants. The trees of Cuba, as everywhere in the torrid zone, are of very rapid growth. The fruits of Cuba are those common to the tropics. The pine-apple and orange are the most esteemed. Of the alimentary plants, the *platano*, or plantain, is by far the most important. Next in order comes the sweet and bitter *yuca*; the sweet root being eaten as a vegetable, and the bitter converted into bread after its poisonous juice has been extracted. The sweet potato, and other farinaceous fruits, are also common. We may also mention the yam, with its mammoth root, the mangroves, mameys, caimitos and rose apples. Cuba is the very paradise for a lazy farmer. The plaintain, which alone yields him food all the year, requires to be planted only once. The stem bears at the end of eight months. Sweet potatoes, when once planted, require care only to prevent their too great luxuriance; this is done by destroying the surplus vines with a plow. Indian

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corn is indigenous. Rice is extensively cultivated.*

MINERAL KINGDOM.—The pursuit of the precious metals was the great object of the Spaniards who first visited Cuba; but if gold was found at all, it was probably in washings of the sands of some of the rivers, as no traces of the supposed mining operations are now to be found. The western part of the island is granitic, and "it is probable," says Humboldt, "that the alluvial deposits of *auriferous sand*, which were explored with so much ardor at the beginning of the conquest, to the great misfortune of the natives, came from those granitic formations. Traces of that sand are still to be found in the rivers Holguin and Escawbray, known in general in the vicinity of Villa Clara, Santo Espiritu, Puerto de Principe, de Bayamo, and the Bahia de Nisse."†

At the time of the conquest auriferous sands were worked at Cubanacan, in the interior of the island, near Jagua and Trinidad. Martyn d'Anghiera, the most intelligent writer on the *conquest* says: "Cuba is richer in gold than Hayti; and at the moment I am writing (1533) 180,000 castellanos of ore have been collected at Cuba." Humboldt is of the opinion that Cuba formerly yielded gold in considerable quantities.

The copper mines, near Santiago, in the eastern part of the island, were wrought with some success during the 17th century; but were abandoned about 100 years ago from a want of a proper knowledge of the art of extracting the metal from the ore. When the mines were abandoned a great quantity of the mineral, amounting to several hundred tons, was left on the spot as worthless; but having been subjected to analysis a few years ago, says Mr. McCulloch, by the English, it was found to be so rich in metal as amply to repay the expense of sending it to England for smelting. The copper mines of Cuba are acknowledged to be among the richest in the world. The most extensive works are in the neighborhood of Santiago de Cuba. They were far richer formerly than now.‡ Near Villa Clara several copper mines, formerly abandoned, have been discovered.

In consequence of the above-mentioned ores being discovered by the English to be so rich in copper, they have explored the old mines near Santiago, and formed three distinct companies for working them. One of these, called the English Company, has been highly successful, employing 900 miners and laborers; some of them slaves, some emigrants from the Canaries, and some "articled" servants, from Cornwall. They employ two steam engines in preparing the ore for exportation, and 500 horses, mules, and camels, in transporting it to the port of Santiago.

In the neighborhood of Santa Clara another copper mine has been opened by an American Company; but its greater distance from the sea, and the less rich character of the ore, have rendered it less successful. The ore of the Santa Clara mines is shipped to England, and smelted in the great smelting houses of Wales. The mineral wealth of Cuba is not yet fully developed, nor will it be until a more enlightened government rules its soil. It is probably much richer in minerals than is generally supposed.

We take from the *Diario de la Marina*, for Jan. 1, 1852, the following statement of the exportation of copper ore from Cuba since 1841:

	Quintals.		Quintals.
1841	693,060	1846	635,654
1842	783,971	1847	565,495
1843	768,650	1848	656,491
1844	2,003,587	1849	583,810
1845	869,922	1850	552,288

From this it will be seen that copper mining in Cuba is declining.

Coal is also abundant in Cuba. It is highly bituminous, and in some places degenerates into a form resembling the asphaltum which is found in the pitch lake of Trinidad, and in various parts of Europe. The ships of the Spanish discoverers of Cuba were careened with this bitumen, which is often found near the coast in a semi-liquid state, like petroleum or naphtha.*

Marbles and jaspers of various colors, and susceptible of a high polish, are found in many parts of Cuba, and in its chief dependency, the Isle of Pines. Mineral waters also abound. Those of

* Humboldt: *Essai sur l'Isle de Cuba*, p. 47.

† "Notes on Cuba," pp. 312-316. Humboldt: *Essai*, p. 11.

‡ Oviedo y Valdes, in his *Los Indias, islas y tierra firme del mar oceano*, 1547, says that Alonzo de Castillo extracted three quintals of copper from five quintals of the ore.

* Humboldt: Essai, &c., p. 57.

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San Diego, Madringa and Guanabacao are the best known. The latter, a few miles from Havana, is the most frequented; the others being difficult of access. Madruga, about 25 miles from Matanzas, is also much frequented. The temperature of the springs of San Diego is about 95° F. The water is clear and transparent, nauseating the stomach, and emitting sulphuretted hydrogen. These baths are found to be efficacious in cutaneous diseases, congestion of the lymphatic glands, scrofula, obstinate syphilis, amenorrhea, chronic diarrheas, strictures of the abdominal viscera, muscular contractions, etc.*

It is not at all improbable, that if the isle of Cuba were subjected to a thorough geological survey, it would be found to be immensely rich in silver, iron, gold, and other metals. The alluvial deposits of the island have always been found auriferous. Those parts of the island affording the granitic auriferous sands are the mouth of the rivers Damusi and Cannado, which fall into the bay of Jagua; and in those parts of the rivers Sagua la Grande and Agabama which are nearest to Escambray; also, at the point where the Saramaguacan falls into the bay of Nuevitas, and the rivers Holguin, Bayamo and Nipe, in the province of Santiago, as before mentioned. Some specimens of the finest gold have been obtained from the mines of Agabama and Sagua la Grande.

In 1827, Don Josè Escalante announced the discovery of silver and copper in the lands of Manicarragua, in the jurisdiction of Villa Clara. The first ores gave no less than seven ounces of pure silver to the quintal of ore; but they have become less productive, perhaps, because they have not been properly worked.

It is very generally believed in Cuba, that iron exists in various parts of the island. The Sierra Maestra gives ample indications of it. No attempts have ever been made to work the iron ores of Cuba, owing to the scarcity of fuel, the difficulty of access to the mines, and many other causes. The mountains of Santa Espiritu, Villa Clara, San Juan and Trinidad, contain not only the precious metals, but a great deal of iron.†

Native loadstone has been found in the mountain Juaraqua, not far from Santiago, and near the ports of Tanamo and Naranjo. Chalk is found in the western part of the island. A beautiful variegated marble exists at Regla and Guanabacoa, and in other parts. Chalcedony has also been found at Guanabacoa, superior to that of Hecla. It has also been found in the eastern part of the island. Mines of alum and copperas were formerly worked in the Juragua mountains. Many varieties of the most beautiful and useful slates are found.

Population.—Notwithstanding that the early Spanish writers on Cuba are numerous, still their works afford us but little information regarding the actual number of the aborigines of the island when it was discovered by Columbus. This defect may be traced to the fact, that an edict, promulgated by the crown of Spain, in 1556, required all works written on the affairs of America to be submitted to the censorship of the Council of the Indies. This censorship studiously concealed, as much as possible, all knowledge of the real value of the Spanish possessions in America, and deprived the world of much valuable information. Writers differ very much in regard to the population of the aborigines. There is a disposition manifested by all of them, (or perhaps we should blame the censorship,) to diminish the number, in order to conceal the atrocities committed by the Spaniards. Arrate declares that they could not have exceeded 300,000; but this would seem hardly credible, when we consider the size of the island, and its natural capabilities of sustaining a large population. Some writers* state that the isle of Cuba, at the time of its conquest in 1511, had 1,000,000 of inhabitants, and that there remained of that one million, in 1517, only 14,000! But this appears to be inconsistent with the statement of *Fray Luys Bertran*, a priest who, on leaving the island, in 1569, in consequence of the persecutions he suffered from the European settlers, predicted that "the 200,000 Indians which Cuba contained, would perish the victims of the cruelty of the Europeans." So that the Indians were far from being extinct in 1569. *Gomara*, however, in his *Hist. de las*

* Turnbull, p. 256-7.
† Turnbull's Travels in Cuba, 1840, pp. 253-54.

* Albert Hüne: Hist. Philos., 1820; vol. 1., p. 137.

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Indias, states that, in 1553, the Indians had entirely disappeared. The accounts of the bishop of Chiopa, on the population of Cuba, are equally contradictory. Humboldt, who weighs all the authorities, inclines to the opinion that the original population of Cuba was very small—say 300 or 400,000.* He thinks that although the island, from the great fertility of its soil, might nourish several millions of Indians; yet, that if such a large population had existed, it would have exhibited a more advanced civilization. Besides, if the population had been as great as is asserted by some, he finds difficulty in believing that it could have disappeared from any of the alleged causes—the tyranny of the conquerors, the faults of governors, the severity of the slavery imposed, the small-pox, and the frequency of suicides—in the short space of 30 or 40 years, as is admitted.

All the Spanish historians admit that the aborigines of Cuba were enslaved; but most of them endeavored to evade the imputation of cruelty on the part of their Spanish masters. Herrera and Oviedo attribute their rapid extermination to their despair on finding themselves subjected to the dominion of Spain, and on being forced to labor.†

Garcilasso relates that the effect of the despair of the natives was such, that the rage of hanging themselves in huts and caverns, by whole families, prevailed, suicide being preferred to labor. Spanish writers have attempted to exculpate the *conquestadores*, by attributing the disappearance of the natives to their *taste* for suicide! All cruelty is denied.‡

The oppression of the natives began with the arrival of the "cruel Hernando de Soto," as Humboldt calls him, towards 1539; and to reconcile the statement of Gomara, that in 1553 all the Indians had disappeared, he says, "we must necessarily admit that there were considerable remains of that people which saved themselves on canoes, in Florida, believing, according to ancient traditions, that they were returning to the country of their ancestors.*

The first census of Cuba was taken in 1775. That and the subsequent census are as follows:

1775		170,862
1791		272,140
1811—Whites	274,000	
" Free blacks	140,000	
" Slaves	212,000	
		600,000
1817—Whites	290,021	
" Free blacks	115,691	
" Slaves	225,268	
		630,960
1825—Whites	325,000	
" Free blacks	130,000	
" Slaves	260,000	
		715,000
1827—Whites	311,051	
" Free blacks	106,484	
" Slaves	286,942	
		704,487
1841—Whites	418,291	
" Free blacks	152,838	
" Slaves	436,495	
		1,007,624
1846—Whites	425,769	
" Free blacks	149,226	
" Slaves	323,759	
		898,752
1849†—Whites	487,133	
" Free blacks	164,410	
" Slaves	323,897	
		945,440

The last two censuses we take from the Havana *Diario de la Marina*, for Jan. 1, 1852. Neither of them includes soldiers in garrison, crews of vessels, or the floating population. The census of 1846 adding 40,000 for the omission could be increased to 938,752. And adding 54,560 for the omission of 1849, the census of that year becomes 1,000,000. The above censuses, from 1775, show the following progress of the white population:

1775 to 1791, increase per annum	2.14	per cent.
1791 to 1817, " " "	3.18	"
1817 to 1827, " " "	2.97	"
1827 to 1846, " " "	2.00	"
1846 to 1849, " " "	2.45	"

The censuses of 1841 and 1846 give the following as the population of the principal cities and towns of Cuba:

	1841.	1846.
Havana	137,498	106,968
Puerto Prince	24,034	19,168
Santiago de Cuba	24,753	24,005
Guines	2,515	2,612
Matanzas	18,991	16,986
Cardenas	1,828	3,103

* *Essai sur l'Isle de Cuba*, p. 130–132.

† The persecution of Bertram, for reproving the European masters, proves that they cruelly treated the enslaved natives.

‡ The Abbe Don Juan Nuix wrote a work entitled *Reflexiones imparciales sobre la humanidad de los Espanoles, contra los pretendidas filosofos y politicos*, in which he congratulates the American Indians "on having fallen into the hands of the Spaniards, whose conduct has been at all times the most humane, and the government the wisest."

* Essai, p. 133.

† For a dissertation upon the population of Cuba, see an able article in De Bow's Review, vol. viii., p. 313, by T. C. Reynolds, Secretary of Legation at Madrid. We recommend every reader to peruse that article with care in connection with the present.

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	1841.	1846.
San Juan de los Remedios	4,313	4,106
Cienfuegos	2,437	4,324
Trinidad	12,718	13,222
Villa Clara	6,132	5,837
Santo Spiritus	9,484	7,424
Nuevitas	1,352	1,222
Manzanillo	3,299	3,780
Bayamo	7,480	4,778
Holguin	4,199	3,065
Baracoa*	2,605	1,853

We have no later statements of the population of the principal cities and towns, except of the city of Havana. In the *Diario de la Marina* for January 1, 1852, it is stated that the population of Havana in 1849, was 142,002; and in 1850, 150,561 souls.

The population of Cuba is divided into four classes, of which the first are the native Spaniards, the most powerful portion. They comprise, with some exceptions, the merchants, the army, the clergy, and all the government offices, from the Captain-General down to the captain of partido. The Creoles form the second class, and are generally planters, farmers, or lawyers, but are most generally scrupulously excluded from the army and higher civil offices. They find no sympathy among the Spaniards, who treat them with open contempt and hauteur, though inferior to them in intelligence and enterprise. The Creole seeing himself, in his own native land, excluded from all offices in the government, in the army, and in the church, regards with no favorable eye those sent from Spain to rule over him, and to mend their fortunes at his expense by exacting to the utmost from his gains.†

The third class is made up of about an equal number of free mulattoes and free negroes, who are by law excluded from all civil offices. They compose a respectable part of the militia, and would play an active part in any revolutionary movement that might occur. The free colored population of Cuba have many privileges, and are more kindly treated and respected than the same class in our northern states. The Spaniard has not the same antipathy to color that the Anglo-Saxon has. The free colored are forbidden by law to intermarry with the whites, and are also excluded from the learned professions. This obstacle, however, is sometimes removed by having the children baptized as white by the priest; or, by procuring witnesses to give oath to their white extraction, and the fraud is winked at. The greater portion of this class have procured their freedom by purchase.

The slaves of Cuba are divided into *bozales*, those recently brought from Africa; the *ladinos*, those imported before the law, in 1821, prohibiting the slave trade; and the *criollos*, those born on the island.* By the laws of Cuba, every owner of slaves is bound to instruct them in the Catholic religion, after the labor of the day has been finished, to the end that they may be baptized and partake of the sacrament. On Sundays and feast days they are not to be employed more than two hours for the necessary labors of the estate, the feeding of the animals, etc., except when the gathering of the crop admits of no delay. They are required to have daily six or eight plantains, or an equivalent in potatoes, yams, yucas, or other vegetables, eight ounces of meat or fish, and four ounces of rice or flour. The quantity of clothes is also prescribed, and also the treatment of the women. They are not to be worked more than nine or ten hours per day, except during the harvest of canes, when they may be employed sixteen hours daily. On Sundays and holidays they must be allowed to attend to their gardens and private occupations. Those only between sixteen and sixty can be tasked, and when liberated they must be allowed a permanent subsistence. A slave may purchase his liberty for a price fixed by three arbiters, one chosen by the master and two by the *Sindico Procurador General*. Liberty and a reward of $50 are to be bestowed on a slave who reveals a conspiracy. No slave can receive from his master, for any offence, more than twenty-five lashes; a crime requiring more must be punished only after a judicial investigation. A master who maltreats his slave, maims him, or otherwise seriously injures him, is compelled to sell him to another. A master violating the slave code may be fined from $20 to $200.

* This town is remarkable for being the place where Columbus first landed, on the 28th of October, 1482.

† Notes on Cuba, p. 198.

* *Bozal* signies muzzled; *ladino*, versed in an idiom, or one who has been in the country a year. *Criollo* means *Creole*. The term *bozal* is also rendered *nouvellement arrivé, en parlant d'un nègre*.

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Such is a partial sketch of the Cuban slave code; but it is necessary to observe that its provisions and requirements are not strictly regarded. That part regarding the religious and moral government of the slaves is enforced only so far as to secure them baptism and burial in consecrated grounds. On a few Spanish estates, says the author of "Notes on Cuba," prayers are repeated to them before going to work in the morning, and before retiring to their dormitories. He also says that the slaves of Cuba, compared with the manufacturing and mining classes of England, labor less, and, so far as physical enjoyment goes, are better off. He declares the account of their being killed by over labor, "absurd tales."*

There is one other class of citizens in Cuba that we must notice, before leaving this branch of our subject. We allude to the "*Nobility of Cuba.*" These consist of twenty-nine *marquises* and thirty *counts*, more than half of whom have been created since 1816. From 1816 to 1833 Ferdinand VII. created eleven marquises and fifteen counts. Most of them had acquired their wealth by sugar plantations, and are jocosely called "*sugar noblemen.*" They often adopt the names of their estates, as the Marquis de Santa Lucia, the Conde de Cosa-Romero. The Marquis del Real Socorro obtained his title by presenting a large sum of money to the government when its coffers were empty; and a few others had theirs conferred for military and other services to the state. The greatest number have, however, been bought, no consideration being paid to aught but the wealth of the individual, the mother country thus taxing the idle arrogance of her colonists. The price paid for a patent of nobility has varied from $20,000 to $50,000, the purchaser being compelled to entail a certain amount of property with the title.

One in Cuba is struck with the number of estates held by titled owners. Many of them are very extensive, and are rented out, paying a fixed annual tribute; so that a large plantation may often be obtained for a yearly tax, without paying any purchase money. Many wealthy persons in Cuba have purchased titles of nobility, not only on account of the rank they give possessors in society, but also for the exemption they confer from petty annoyances from captains of partidos, and other low officers of justice. A Cuban noble can only be tried by a high tribunal, and cannot be arrested for debt. Military officers, also, can only be indicted before a military court; and priests only before ecclesiastical bodies.

The origin of many of the Cuban nobility, while it exposes them to the private derision of the untitled crowd, creates among themselves a clannish feeling, and presents an insuperable barrier to a general social spirit among the nobility. The marquis of 1832 looks down with something like contempt on his younger brother of 1835; and those of the 17th or 18th century, counting largely on their pedigree and antiquity, hold themselves quite aloof from the mushroom $20,000 "sugar noblemen" of the degenerate 19th. The tone of Cuban society is also eminently aristocratic, and certain classes are very exclusive. The native of old Spain does not conceal his hatred of foreigners and his contempt of the Creole.*

The untitled crowd is divided into the sugar planter, the coffee planter, the merchant, the liberal professions, and the literati. All below these form a single class with which the rest do not associate. The planter is one grade above the merchant. The bar and the bench are grossly corrupt and despised. Among the lower classes there is an absence of all refinement, religion, education and decency.

Nor is the moral character of the higher classes of Cuba quite above suspicion. Their outward decorum may be, to a great extent, says a shrewd writer, only in appearance, and there is much reason to believe that the grossest immorality and irreligion prevails among them. Religion has become, in fact, in Cuba, a mere mockery, the priesthood being plunged into the grossest immorality, and given to a daily violation of all those rules of conduct which are so strictly enjoined by the Catholic churches of the United States. The priests of Cuba and Mexico have become the scandal of the whole Catholic world; and it would be a gross calumny on the enlightened Catholic citizens of the United States, to insinuate that they

* Notes on Cuba, pp. 249—263.

* Notes on Cuba, pp. 196—198.

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countenanced Catholicism as it now exists in Cuba, if even they admit it to be Catholicism at all. The most open infidelity prevails in Cuba, and the priests as a class are universally despised.

MANUFACTURES.—Of these the most important are the making of sugar, molasses, and rum; the preparation of coffee, the manufacture of cigars, the bleaching of wax, and the manipulation of the minor staples of the island. Manufactures, indeed, of any other description, are not to be looked for in any country where the population are not impelled to them by the barrenness of the soil. Salt is manufactured to a limited extent.

INTERNAL COMMUNICATION — RAILROADS.—The means of communication between the interior and the coast are very imperfect generally. The common roads are badly constructed, or rather not constructed at all, and during the rainy season are, in general, impassable for wheel carriages. The evil is diminished by the long and narrow form of the island, which enables the planters to bring their produce to a place of shipment without any very long land journeys. The number of coasting vessels is in consequence very considerable. There are three principal high roads, under the care of the *Junto de Fomento;* but they are always in bad condition, and quite impassable during the rainy season. They conduct to all parts of the island.

There are six rail-roads on the island. The oldest road, finished in 1838, leads from Havana to Guines, in the interior, a distance of forty-five miles. It now belongs, we believe, to a company, who have extended a branch from San Felipe to Batabano; another from Rincon to San Antonio is progressing, and another from Guines to Los Palos. The rail-road from Regla to the mines of Prosperidad has been abandoned. The one from Matanzas to Sabanilla is complete. That from Cardenas to Bemba, and that from Jucaro to beyond Altamisal are long since finished, as also that from Puerto Principe to Nuevitas. On all these roads the accommodations for passengers are not excelled by any road in the United States. The engines are generally under the care of Americans, and also the general management of the roads. These roads have all proved profitable investments. By means of the rail-road to Batabano, and the steamers on the southern coast, St. Jago de Cuba can be reached in four days from Havana, and the journey to Jamaica is thus greatly expedited.* Communication with all parts of the island by water is effected by means of steamers, which ply regularly. The number of coasting vessels is very great. The number that entered the port of Havana, in 1851, was 3,523.†

CURRENCY.—Paper money is unknown in Cuba. The circulating medium, like that of Old Spain, consists exclusively of the precious metals. The coins in use are Spanish doubloons, or ounces of gold, which are a legal tender for seventeen hard dollars; also the subdivisions of the doubloon—the half being $8 40; the quarter, $4 20; the eighth, $2 10; and the sixteenth, $1 50. Mexican and Columbian doubloons are also a legal tender for $16. Their aliquot parts are worth 8, 4, 2, and $1, respectively. Of silver coins, the Spanish dollar, and its divisions, and also Mexican, United States and South American dollars, are a legal tender at their nominal value.

The only incorporated banking establishment at Havana, is that called the Royal Bank of Ferdinand VII., which was created in 1827. The capital of this bank, amounting to a million of dollars, was provided by the Spanish government. Its business is confined to the discounting of promissory notes and bills of exchange; and the directors are prohibited from engaging in any other speculation, however lucrative it may appear, under the penalty of being held personally responsible. The rate of discount is fixed at 10 per cent. per annum. No individual or house is accommodated beyond $10,000 for three months. No new discount is allowed to any party who has been guilty of the slightest irregularity, for the space of three years afterwards. All property, even a wife's dowry, is liable for a debt due the bank.

The Colonial Minister of Finance is president of the bank. The directors of the bank, three in number, are held responsible for their proceedings to the government, in the sum of $10,000 each, giving mortgages to that amount

* Notes on Cuba, pp. 336—7.
† Diario de la Habana.

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on real estate. Each director has one of the three keys of the strong box.

There are also private banking-houses at Havana, which discount bills, and deal in exchanges.*

EDUCATION.—In the whole island of Cuba, education is at a very low ebb. According to the latest and most favorable accounts, the schools are as follows:

Of white male children	129
" female "	79
Of colored male	6
" female	8
Total Schools in Cuba	222

The pupils of these schools are divided as follows:

White boys	6,025
" girls	2,417
Colored boys	460
" girls	180
Total	9,082

From this, then, it appears, that out of the whole population of Cuba, which is about 1,000,000, there are only 9,082 children, of all grades, who attend school Of this number, only 3,757 are educated gratuitously. The remaining 5,325 attend school at their own expense. Of the 3,757 pupils, 540 are educated by the once flourishing "*Sociedad Patriotica*," whose resources were derived from the personal subscriptions of the members, and the voluntary contributions of citizens; 2,111 by local subscriptions; and the remaining 1,106 gratuitously taught by the professors.

The latest official returns show that the number of free children, in the isle of Cuba, between the ages of five and fifteen, is 99,599; of whom, as before stated, only 9,082 have the benefit of schools, and these chiefly by private means. No appropriations from the general treasury of Cuba are made for public instruction, although the revenue of the island is about $22,000,000. So far from receiving aid from the treasury, the schools have actually been deprived by it; for when the custom-houses have taken charge of collecting the local taxes established for public instruction, ten per cent. commission has been deducted for the service; and large sums imposed on commerce and trade for this purpose, have been, and are to this day, withheld and unaccounted for by the treasury. In Cuba only one free child in 63 attends school.

* Trumbull's Cuba, pp. 87-102.

The *Sociedad Patriotica* was established in 1790, and its name is now changed to that of the *Real Sociedad Economica de la Habana*, in which the term *Royal* usurps the place of *Patriotic*. This Royal Society of Havana is divided into four principal sections—on Education, Agriculture, Commerce and Popular Industry, and the History of Cuba. There is attached to the institution a public library, kept in the old convent of San Domingo, and is open daily, except on Sundays and festivals. The society publishes monthly a memorial of its labors,* which is more or less valuable for statistics regarding the past and present condition of the island. It has branches in nine of the principal towns of Cuba, which are in correspondence with it. The parent society in Havana has numbered from its foundation 300 members. Its corresponding members are 63.†

There is at Havana the Royal University, embracing a medical and law school, and chairs on all the natural sciences. The medical school was reorganized in 1842, and the present requisitions for graduation, among others, are a *classical education*, and six years study of medicine. The ordeal through which foreign candidates for licenses to practice are now compelled to pass, is rigid in the extreme, and the expenses amount to nearly $400. Several of the professors are French, and the school has a very respectable standing.‡

We take occasion here to observe, that it is with the greatest satisfaction that we find ourselves enabled to record so favorable an account of medical education in Cuba. With all her faults, she deserves the credit of duly appreciating the importance of making medicine truly what it professes to be—a learned profession. She lays down, as the first requisite for a physician, a *classical education;* and to this she adds a six years' course of medical study. Our American schools will, many of them, be disposed to consider, as unnecessary, such a severe training; but it is just what it ought to be every where. Here in the United States we have disgraced—yes, I repeat it—we have disgraced the medical profession, by omitting the *classical education* altogether, and by reducing

* Under the eye of the Censorship.
† Notes on Cuba, p. 213-14.
‡ Notes on Cuba, by a Physician, 1844, p. 215.

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the course of medical studies to two courses of lectures, of four months each!

The consequences of this are notorious, and the medical profession is disgraced. A medical diploma, from an American medical school, is now a piece of worthless lumber. The only way that this disgrace can be blotted out, is to return to those requisites of a learned profession—a thorough classical education, and a medical course embracing a term of years.

Education in Cuba is in a lower state than in almost any other civilized country. Some idea can be formed of this dearth of education from the number of pupils in the schools of its principal towns and cities. At Guines, a town of 16,000 inhabitants, of whom 2,612 are whites, there are only 235 scholars in all the schools. Matanzas, with a population of 16,986, of whom 10,000 are whites, has only 815 pupils, and 16 schools. In very popular sections of the island, the dearth of schools is very remarkable. Nueva Filipina, with a population of more than 30,000, had, in 1844, but one school of forty boys. Guanabacoa, one of the oldest towns in Cuba, with a population of 10,000, had only one free school of thirty boys in 1844.

Besides the Royal University at Havana, there are several other institutions of learning. Among these are the Royal Seminary of *San Carlos y San Ambrosio*, founded in 1773; a girl's seminary, founded in 1691; a free school of sculpture and painting, founded by the Sociedad Economica, in 1818; a mercantile school, also free, and many private institutions for instruction in the elementary branches of education.

Among the private institutions of learning at Havana, at the present time, are the Real Colegio de Humanidades de Jesus y Jose, in the calle de Acosta; the Colegio de Ninas de Nuestra Senora de las Mercedes, directed by Dona Caridad Santi, in which institution is taught the catechism, reading, writing, Spanish grammar, geography, French, English, Italian, drawing, music, dancing, politeness, (urbanidad,) needlework, etc. It has six professors. There is also the High School of Professor Macsimo Dominguez de Gironella, an institution similar to our best high schools in New-Orleans. From the Havana papers it appears that there are also several mercantile academies, in which are taught book-keeping, arithmetic, stenography, and the English and French languages. Of the actual condition of any of the above-named institutions we have no positive knowledge.

A museum of natural history was established at Havana, in 1838, of which the learned naturalist, Don Felipe S. Poye, was appointed Director; without the walls of the city a botanical garden was also laid out, which, in 1844, was under the care of Professor Auber.

It is agreed by all recent writers on Cuba, that there exists a lamentable dearth of schools in Cuba. Of the white Creoles no liberally educated persons are found except among the more wealthy portion, who send their sons to Europe and the United States for their education. The middle class has but an elementary education; and the lowest class, which is by far the most numerous, is without any education at all—sunk into the grossest ignorance.

The suppression of infant schools by Gen. O'Donnell, a former Captain-General of Cuba, is well known. An order has recently been made, by the Cuban authorities, which in effect prohibits parents from sending their children to the United States for purposes of education; and such parents, deprived of means of liberal education at home, are driven to the expedient of proving ill health, or feigning it, in their children, in order to obtain passports for them.*

Such is the state of education in Cuba at the present time, according to the best authorities. Though the people are taxed beyond any other known community in the world, the white population paying annually to the government more than $12,000,000, (so say the government returns, but in reality it is nearly double that sum,) they are almost entirely destitute of schools.† It was announced in the *Diario de la Marina*, of January 1, 1852, that the government were about to establish nineteen primary free schools, distributed between Havana, Matanzas, and Puerto Principe; also two normal schools at Havana; but we are not aware that the schools have as yet been established.

AGRICULTURE.—The chief agricultural products of Cuba are sugar, coffee, and tobacco. The cultivation of these

* "Cuba and the Cubans," p. 184.
† Notes on Cuba, p. 251.

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products has advanced with extraordinary rapidity, especially since 1809, when the ports of the island were more freely opened to foreigners. The most complete account of the agricultural products of Cuba that has ever been published, appeared in a semi-official paper, entitled "*Isla de Cuba en* 1851," which occupied the entire columns of the *Diario de la Marina* for January 1, 1852. The tables are of official origin, and we shall give them entire.

General Statement of the Arrobas of Sugar exported from the Island from the Year* 1786 *to* 1850:

	Arrobas.
1st 5 years, 1786—1790	5,452,192
Average per year	1,090,438
2d 5 years, 1790—1795	7,572,600
Average	1,514,520
3d 5 years, 1795—1800	11,466,776
Average	2,293,355
4th 5 years, 1800—1805	14,823,270
Average	2,964,654
5th 5 years, 1805—1810	15,101,200
Average	3,020,240
6th 5 years, 1810—1815	14,493.756
Average	2.898,751
7th 5 years, 1815—1820	18,058,206
Average	3,611,641
8th 5 years, 1820—1825	24,526,581
Average	4,905,316
9th 5 years, 1825—1830	32,540,689
Average	6,508,137
10th 5 years, 1830—1835	39,467,878
Average	7,893,575
11th 5 years, 1835—1840	50,742,777
Average	10,148,555
12th 5 years, 1840—1845	64,338,492
Average	12,867,698
13th 5 years, 1845—1850	93,452,300
Average	18,690,460
1851....boxes	1,437,056

RECAPITULATION.

	Arrobas.	Increase per cent.
1st 5 years	1,090,438	
2d "	1,514,520	39
3d "	2,293,355	51
4th "	2,964,654	29
5th "	3,020,240	20
6th "	2,898,751	"
7th "	3,611,641	25
8th "	4,905,316	39
9th "	6,508,137	33
10th "	7,893,575	21
11th "	10,148,555	29
12th "	12,867,698	25
13th "	18,690,460	45

From this it will be seen that the increase of the 13th period of 5 years over the 1st period, was 1614 per cent. The annual increase, during the 65 years, was 25 per cent.

It is not known precisely at what time the cultivation of the sugar-cane (*arundo saccharifera*) was commenced in Cuba. It was not until after the cultivation of sugar was commenced in St. Domingo, where it was introduced by Piedro de Atienza, about the year 1520. They used at that time, in the manufacture of sugar, cylindrical presses, moved by hydraulic wheels.* The isle of Cuba was far behind St. Domingo, at first, in agriculture. As late as 1553 Spanish historians make no mention of sugar in Cuba, and only speak of sugar exported from Mexico to Spain and Peru.†

The next products most immediately connected with sugar are brandy and molasses. Of these we have not the statistics as complete as those of sugar. We can only give the amount of those articles exported from the entire island since the year 1826, as follows:

	Brandy. pipes.	Molasses. hhds.
1826	2,597	68,880
1827	2,457	74,083
1828	2,864	86,891
1829	4,518	63,537
1830	5,594	66,218
1831	3,838	83,001
1832	3,423	100,178
1833	3,227	95,768
1834	3,648	104,213
1835	5,815	109,233
1836	3,888	109,549
1837	3,450	114,975
1838	5,408	134,802
1839	8,219	136,447
1840	10,209	146,464
1841	11,302	131,390
1842	10,227	119,138
1843	13,810	191,093
1844	6,326	172,431
1845	4,120	121,322
1846	9,032	203,597
1847	19,432	252,840
1848	16,339	228,726
1849	11,640	246,570
1850	11,825	269,044
1851	10,168	400,000

From the above table it will be seen that the annual increase in the production of brandy in the 26 years, is about 11 per cent.; and that of molasses about 9 per cent.‡

* Of the weights and measures used in Cuba, the *arroba* is equal to 25 7-16 pounds English dry measure; the arroba, liquid measure, is 4 1-10 English gallons. The Spanish *quintal* is 101 3-4 English pounds. The *fanega* is 200 pounds Spanish, or about 3 English bushels. Of superficial measure, 108 Spanish *varas* are equal to 100 English yards.

* Oviedo, *Hist. Nat. des Ind.* lib. 4, cap. 8.

† Humboldt: *Essai sur l'Isle de Cuba*, p. 162. See also De Bow's Industrial Resources for other particulars—Articles West Indies, Cuba, Sugar, etc.

‡Vast quantities of molasses have, in some years, in many parts of Cuba, been thrown away, the article not being worth the transportation. The plantations near Cardenas suffered the molasses to run off into the ditches by the road-side, and gave it away to all who would receive it. In some places pits were dug for it to run into, as it was found destructive to vegetation wherever it flowed.

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Let us now look at the exportation of *coffee* and *wax*, from the whole island, during the last 26 years. It is as follows:

Years.	Coffee. Arrobas.	Wax. Arrobas.
1826	1,773,798	22,918
1827	2,001,584	23,403
1828	1,284,088	21,404
1829	1,736,258	23,482
1830	1,798,598	38,740
1831	2,130,582	29,850
1832	2,048,890	30,203
1833	2,566,359	41,536
1834	1,817,315	35,258
1835	1,416,015	31,044
1836	1,610,441	28,259
1837	2,133,568	39,264
1838	1,550,341	28,296
1839	1,950,309	39,315
1840	2,143,574	26,132
1841	1,235,006	32,024
1842	1,998,846	33,384
1843	1,631,782	48,101
1844	1,240,032	34.276
1845	559,322	39,251
1846	817,662	41,716
1847	939.154	54,995
1848	694,137	50.110
1849	877,137	35,691
1850	520.134	58,194
1851	117,032 quintals.	
	No returns for wax.	

From this table it will be seen that in the last 26 years, the production of coffee in Cuba has been declining at the rate of about 2 per cent. annually, while that of wax has *increased* about 3 per cent. annually.

The coffee plant was first introduced into the New World from the east, by the way of Europe. Van Horn, the governor of Batavia, in 1690, sent some of the seeds to Amsterdam, some of which found their way to America. In 1718, coffee plantations were first made in Surinam, and in 1728, plantations were opened in Martinique and Jamaica. When the French were driven from St. Domingo to Cuba, between the years 1796 and 1798, they carried with them the coffee plant; and from that time coffee plantations multiplied rapidly in the island. (See De Bow's Industrial Resources, art. "Coffee.")

A coffee plantation is one of the most beautiful objects in nature. It is a perfect garden, surpassing any thing that the ablest horticulturist can produce out of the tropics. "Imagine more than 300 acres of land," says the author of Notes on Cuba, "planted in regular squares, with evenly pruned shrubs, each containing about eight acres, intersected by broad alleys of palms, oranges, mangoes, and other beautiful trees; the interstices between which are planted with lemons, pomegranates, cape-jessamines, tuberoses, lilies, and various other gaudy and fragrant flowers; while a double strip of Guinea-grass, or of luscious pines, skirt the sides, presenting a pretty contrast to the smooth, red soil in the centre, scrupulously kept free from all verdure. Then the beauty of the whole while in flower—that of the coffee white, and so abundant that the fields seem covered with flakes of snow; the fringe-like blossoms of the rose-apple; the red of the pomegranate and Mexican rose; the large scarlet flowers of the piñon, which, when in bloom, covering the whole tree with a flaming coat, is the richest production of Flora's realms; the quaint lirio's trumpet-shaped flowers, painted yellow and red, and bursting into bunches from the blunt extremities of each leafless branch; the young pine-apples, with blue flowrets projecting from the centres of their squares; the white tuberoses, and double cape-jessamines; the gaudy yellow flag, and a score of other flowers, known to us only as the sickly tenants of the hot-house. And when some of the flowers have given place to the ripened fruit; and the golden orange, the yellow mango, the lime, the lemon, the luscious caimito, and the sugared zapote; the mellow alligator pear, the custard-apple, and the rose-apple, giving to the palate the flavor of otto of roses;—when all these hang on the trees in oppressive abundance, and the ground is also covered with the over-ripe fruit, the owner of a coffee estate might safely challenge the world for a fairer garden. Nor must this be thought the appearance it presents for only a short period. The coffee has successive crops of blossoms five or six times in the winter and spring; and on the orange, the ripe fruit and the blossom, and the young green fruit, are often seen at the same time; while several of the shrubs and plants bloom nearly all the year."* "Nor is the rich fragrance," says Mr. Turnbull, "of the orange grove to be compared for a moment with the aromatic odors of a coffee plantation, when its hundred thousand trees have just thrown out their unrivaled display of jessamine-like flowers, reminding you of what you may have read in eastern fable of the perfumes of Araby the Blest."†

* Notes on Cuba, 1844, p. 139.
† Turnbull's Cuba, p. 298.

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The coffee tree, if left to nature, grows to the height of from 12 to 18 feet, giving off horizontal branches, knotted at every joint, which, like the trunk, are covered with a gray bark. The blossoms look like the white jasmine, and form thick circular clusters around the branches. They appear from December to June, and last only two or three days. The berries at first are green, but become white as they enlarge and ripen, then yellow, and finally bright red, closely resembling the cherry in size and appearance. The trees are often loaded with them in closely-wedged circles around each joint of the branches. On a single branch two feet long there are often seen as many as ninety of the berries, each containing two grains of coffee, with their flat sides together, imbedded in a soft mucilaginous pulp. The berries ripen from August to December, and are gathered by the hand; and as three or four different crops are often ripening at the same time on each tree, as many separate pickings are required. The berries, when perfectly dried, are passed through a mill, consisting of a large circular wooden trough, two feet deep, and in width, tapering from two feet at the top to one at the bottom. A heavy solid wooden wheel, about six feet in diameter, and eight inches thick at the circumference, plays in the trough, crushing the berries which pass between it and the bottom of the trough. The husks are then separated by means of a fanning mill, which also separates the larger grains from the smaller. The broken grains are picked out by the negroes for plantation use, while the whole ones are packed for market. The whole crop is generally in market by the first of February.

The coffee tree, like the cotton plant, has a deadly enemy in the shape of a small worm, which often destroys it by girdling it beneath the bark. Another species of worm bores into the trunk, traversing it in every direction, causing it to fall by the first high wind. There are also two species of moths which prey on the leaves; but the most destructive of all is a small fly which deposits its eggs on the leaf, from which spring caterpillars that speedily consume the entire leaves of the tree.

The coffee trees on a plantation are often several hundred thousand in number. As many as 350,000 and 400,000 trees are often seen. One tree yields from a half to three-fourths of a pound of coffee. The trees are in rows, at right angles, about four yards apart. Between the rows are planted plantains, corn, and other vegetables.

To bring a coffee plantation into full operation requires about four years. Mr. Turnbull estimates that a coffee plantation of 200,000 trees would require, for the first seven years, an outlay of $40,000; and that the net annual returns, after that time, from the sales of coffee, corn, and the other products, after deducting all expenses, would be about $5,300; which would be 13 per cent. on the capital invested. The author of "Notes on Cuba," who, we believe, was a physician of Charleston, now dead, estimates that a coffee plantation of 350,000 trees will yield annually a net balance of $10,000, after the payment of all expenses; but the cultivation of sugar is found to be immensely more profitable. The coffee tree bears well when it is forty years old.

The wax of Cuba, now so extensively exported, is not the product of native bees,* but of bees brought from Europe. The exportation of wax began in 1772. The wax of Cuba was formerly sent mostly to Mexico for consumption in the churches. The honey of Cuba is justly celebrated for its fine rich flavor. There is a native bee in Cuba, said to be *stingless*, which produces a black wax, and honey as limpid as water.†

The next agricultural product which we shall mention is tobacco, of which we have the complete statistics since 1826, as furnished by the *Diario de la Marina*, for Jan. 1, 1852. They are as follows:

	Leaf Tobacco. Arrobas.	Manufactured. Arrobas.
1826	79,581	197,194
1827	79,106	167,362
1828	70,031	210,335
1829	125,502	243,443
1830	160,358	407,153
1831	117,454	331,438
1832	76,430	448,123
1833	92,476	617,713
1834	87,154	616,020
1835	125,303	346,675
1836	228,519	518,443
1837	179,503	792,438
1838	194,799	916,466
1839	204,947	874,258
1840	169,671	649,824
1841	230,303	850,856
1842	237,713	751,445

* Humboldt: *Essai*, p. 220.
† Notes on Cuba, p. 347.

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	Leaf Tobacco. Arrobas.	Manufactured. Arrobas.
1843	230,303	1,289,985
1844	237,713	792,525
1845	288,329	1,022,525
1846	353.041	766,782
1847	372,780	1,224,060
1848	251,025	807.400
1849	160,765	618,600
1850	319,125	1,063,200
1851	75,791	Quintals.

The tobacco of Cuba is celebrated throughout the world. The custom of smoking was borrowed from the natives of Hayti, and was introduced into Europe towards the end of the 16th century. The plant is indigenous to America, and the term *tobacco* is probably derived from Tabaco, a province of Yucatan, where it is said to have been first found by the Spaniards. The honor of introducing it into England, about 300 years ago, is ascribed to Sir Francis Drake and Sir Walter Raleigh. The name *Tobacum Nicotiana* is, of course, not classic Latin, the word *Tobacum* having been invented since the discovery of America; and *Nicotiana* is obviously derived from Nicot, (John,) who first introduced tobacco into France, in 1559. Some have derived the term *tobacum* and tobacco, from *tabac*, the name of the instrument used by the natives of America in smoking the herb; others from *Tobasco* in Mexico.

Humboldt says that the tobacco plant has been cultivated from time immemorial by the natives of Oronoko. It is not improbable that the Asiatics were acquainted with it long before the discovery of America, as is supposed by Pallas, Rumphius, and Louveiro, though it does not appear that it was known in Europe before that time. Ulloa, however, has endeavored to show that the Europeans learned the use of it from the Asiatics. Columbus, on his arrival at Cuba, in 1492, beheld, for the first time, the custom of smoking tobacco among the natives.*

The most ancient statements we possess, on the quantity of tobacco which the isle of Cuba has produced, extend back as far as 1748. The Abbé Raynal, whom Humboldt considers "a much more exact writer than is generally believed," states that, between 1748 and 1753, the mean annual amount produced by the island was 75,000 arrobas. From 1789 to 1794 the annual amount was 250,000 arrobas. From 1794 to 1803, the amount produced fell, owing to the government monopoly and other causes, to less than half that quantity. The total production of tobacco, however, in the island, is believed to have been, from 1822 to 1825, a gain from 300,000 to 400,000 arrobas.* During the government monopoly from 10 to 12,000,000 lbs. of tobacco were sometimes accumulated at Seville, where all the tobacco of Cuba was deposited, and the revenue arising from it, in good years, was about 6,000,000 piastres.

The best quality of tobacco comes from the Vuelta Abajo, the southeastern part of the island, and the seed from that place is sent over the northern and western parts. The tobacco lands of Cuba yield about 135 lbs. to the acre.

During the government monopoly of tobacco, factories were established in the island, the officers of which were required to buy up the crop at prices fixed by themselves. These officers, called *Visitadores des Vegas*, had the inquisitorial duty confided to them of superintending the cultivation of tobacco, and in doing this they committed all sorts of abuses. They reduced the buying price so low that the unfortunate planters were brought to the very verge of ruin. To enhance the value of tobacco, by rendering it scarce, at one time they actually obtained an order from the crown of Spain to *burn*, or otherwise destroy, large quantities of tobacco on hand. When by this operation they had succeeded in raising enormously the price of tobacco in Spain, they filled the market with large quantities which they had secretly withheld from destruction, and thus the government swindled its subjects out of immense sums of money. This system, however, could not last long. In 1804 the raising of tobacco in Cuba had become so much reduced that 40,000 arrobas were imported that year from the United States, to supply the retail demand in Havana; and a still greater quantity also went from the United States to Spain.†

The immense fertility of the soil of Cuba is well known; and it would be a gross error to infer its agricultural capabilities from the amount of its products.

* Irving's Life of Columbus, vol. i. p. 287.

* Humboldt: Cuba, p. 215.

† Turnbull's Cuba, p. 317. See also De Bow's Industrial Resources, art. "Tobacco."

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Under a good government Cuba would produce five times as much as it now does. With an area of about 34,560,000 acres, the greater part of which is of the first quality for cultivation, we find that a great portion of the island is entirely uncultivated;* so that its immense agricultural resources are, as yet, far from being developed.

Having thus far spoken only of sugar, molasses, coffee and tobacco, it remains for us briefly to enumerate the other agricultural products. Indian corn, which is indigenous, yields two crops a year. There are two sorts in the island: the *maiz de frio*, and the *maiz de agua*. Rice is also produced in considerable quantities, in many parts, particularly in the low lands on the coast. Beans of various kinds are raised. Wheat was formerly raised, but its cultivation is now abandoned.

Plantains and bananas thrive astonishingly. So productive is the plantain that 600 plants will maintain a family of ten persons. One acre of ground will produce enough to feed five persons a whole year. Vast quantities, as is well known, are exported to this country.

Cotton thrives in many parts of the island, and is raised at much less cost than any other product. It will grow well on the barren and stony grounds near the coast. Its cultivation has been neglected from the supposition that sugar and coffee were more profitable crops. In 1837, 26,987 arrobas were exported. Cacao thrives well in the island.

The fruits of the island are the pine, or anana, oranges of different kinds, lemons, limes, figs, strawberries, the nispero, melons of different kinds, the red and yellow mamey apple, and other fruits. Among the roots are the yuca of different kinds, and various species of the sweet potato.

TRADE.—Havana, Santiago de Cuba, Puerto Principe, Matanzas, Trinidad, Baracoa, Gibara, Cienfuegos and Manzanilla are the ports of the island licensed for foreign trade. The amount of the imports and exports of Cuba, since 1826, is given in the following table. The figures under each head being the average annual amount.†

	Imported.	Exported.
1826 to 1830	$15,412,689	$12.717,929
1831 to 1835	16,756.348	12,887,339
1836 to 1840	21,662,766	18.503,648
1841 to 1845	22,472,355	24,099,646
1846 to 1850	27,150,754	28.828,988

From 1846 to 1850 the exportations of domestic products were as follows:

1846	$21,587,564
1847	27,296,954
1848	25,312,553
1849	21,896,526
1850	25,043,154

The foreign trade of Cuba is chiefly with this country. Our exports to, and imports from Cuba, during the last eight years, have been as follows:

	Exports.	Imports.
1844	$5,238,595	$9,930,421
1845	6,564,754	6.804,414
1846	5,487,136	8,159.632
1847	6.977,706	12,394,867
1848	6,896,713	12,853,472
1849	5,309,213	10,659,956
1850	4,990,297	10,292,398
1851	6,523,763	17,046,931

This table is compiled from the official returns of our government. Without enumerating the different articles which we export to and from Cuba, it is sufficient to say that nearly all our products go to Cuba in exchange for those of the island.

Without undertaking to give in full the present existing Cuban tariff, we will here present so much of it as relates to those articles of commerce most consumed in Cuba, which are imported from this country. The table shows the enormous duties on each article, and the mode of valuation, so exaggerated as to double and triple the amount of the duties, etc.

Summary of the importation of certain articles that have a large consumption in Cuba, produced by the United States, to which is added a classification of the prices on which they are valued by the tariff of Cuba, and the duties charged on them.

		Per cent.
Joists or scantling, per thousand ft.	$20 00	27½
Tar, per bbl	3 00	"
Plows, each	6 00	"
Rice, per qq	6 00	33⅓
Morocco, per doz	7 50	"
Codfish, qq. lbs	3 50	27½
Plaids, Scotch, per yard	0 25	33
Trunks, leather, each	8 00	33
Hide trunks	4 00	33⅓
Flannels, coarse, per yard	0 31	"
Flannels, 58 in., per yard	0 50	"
Hogsheads, each	2 00	27½
Hogshead shooks	1 00	"

* McCulloch estimates that only one-seventh of Cuba is under cultivation.

† This table does not include slaves from Africa.

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		Per cent.
Half boots, pair	$3 50	33⅓
Boots "	5 00	"
Brass manuf., qq	37 50	33
Mackerel, per bbl	4 50	27½
Geldings, each	150 00	33⅓
Copper boilers, qq	37 50	27½
Settees, wood, each	10 00	33⅓
Negro cloths, per yard	3 00	"
Preserved meats, per lb	0 50	"
Salt beef, per bbl	9 00	"
Pork " "	14 00	"
Willow wagons, each	12 00	"
Carts, each	100 00	"
Straw wagons, each	4 00	"
Hogs, live	10 00	"
Baskets, each	1 00	27½
Copper nails, per qq	25 00	"
Copper, manuf., per qq	37 50	33⅓
Russia sheeting, per yd	0 06¼	"
Cabs, gigs, etc	400 00	"
Bureaus, each	25 00	"
Small do "	12 50	"
Cotton rope and cord, per piece	0 06¼	"
Staves, per 1000	25 00	"
Floor matting, per yard	0 25	"
Oakum, per qq	4 00	33⅓
Fringe, cotton, per piece	1 00	"
" silk " yard	0 25	"
Flannels " "	0 21	"
Blankets, each	1 25	"
Corn meal, per bbl	5 00	"
Flour, per bbl., duty	10 50	"
Sugar moulds, per doz	6 00	"
Soap, per bbl	2 00	"
Cordage, per qq	12 00	"
Piano Fortes, each	300 00	27½
Bricks, per 1000	6 00	33⅓
Valises, leather, each	6 00	"
" for horsemen, each	2 00	"
Cotton shawls, per doz	4 50	"
" " ordinary, each	2 00	27½
Stockings, cotton, per doz	3 50	33⅓
" wool " "	4 00	"
Merino, 1 yard wide	0 37	"
Tables, card, 1 leaf	10 00	"
" " 2 "	12 00	"
Candlewick, per arr	6 25	"
Cotton hdkfs, per doz	1 75	"
Potatoes, per bbl	2 50	27½
Ruled paper, 26 inch	6 00	33⅓
" white, 26 inch	5 00	"
" " 30 "	8 00	"
" letter	2 50	"
Shot, per qq	5 00	27½
Powder "	18 00	"
Oars, per 100 feet	6 25	"
Bags, per doz	2 25	"
Silk sewing thread, per lb	3 00	"
Napkins, per doz	0 75	33⅓
Mahogany chairs, per doz	50 00	"
Maple chairs, " "	31 00	"
Ordinary chairs " "	15 50	"
Saddles	17 00	"
Hats, each	3 00	"
Boards, pine, per 1000	20 00	27½
" maple, " "	25 00	"
Shingles " "	3 75	"
Sperm candles per qq	32 00	"
Tallow " " "	12 00	"
Shoes, men's or boys', per doz	15 00	33⅓

The Cuban planter, before he can export his products, must also pay an *ad valorem* duty of 2¼ per cent., if their destination be a Spanish port, and if the vessel bear a Spanish register. If the destination be foreign, and the vessel Spanish, the duty is 4¼ per cent.; and if both vessel and destination be foreign, the duty is 6¼ per cent. There is also added, in every case, a balance duty of one per cent., determined by the amount of the export duties. Tobacco exported in foreign vessels, with a foreign destination, pays a duty of 12¼ per cent.*

The articles admitted free of duty, are iron sugar kettles, steam engines and machinery for sugar works, rice mills, horses and mares.

The articles exported free of duty, are green fruits of all sorts, lime juice and syrup; also gold and silver in bullion, and specie.

A foreign vessel of 300 tons entering one of the ports of Cuba, has to pay, before it can get out of it, the following enormous charges:

For tonnage duties, at 12 reals per ton, and 1 per cent. of balance duty	$454 50
For dredging machine, at 1½ reals per ton,	47 37½
Wharf duties, at 10 reals per 100 tons per day, say for 8 days	30 00
Custom-house charges, on visit of entry	5 50
Assistance in discharging, at $5 50 per day	44 00
For an extract of the manifest	1 00
Custom-house clearance visit	5 50
For cocket of outward cargo	8 00
For the cocket stamp	8 25
For a translation of the manifest	12 00
Custom-house officers' fees	5 00
For the captain of the port	6 00
For lighthouse dues	4 00
For government dues	4 00
For bill of health	8 00
For visit of health officer	2 00
	$645 12½

REVENUES.—The crown revenues of the island may be divided into six classes:

1st. *Rentas Maritimas*, which include the duties on imports, exports and tonnage, and the local or municipal duties, which are levied at some of the custom-houses of the island.

2d. *Impuestos Interiores*, such as the tax on home manufactures, the consumption duty on butchers' meat, the composition levied from hucksters and hawkers, the sale of papal bulls and of stamped paper, the profits derived from the lottery, and the impost on *cock-fights*.†

3d. Deductions from the *Rentas Ecclesiasticus*, particularly from those called the royal ninths, and the consolidated fund, the sinking fund, the *media annata*, and the annual and monthly revenues of the clergy.

4th. *Deducciones Personales*, such as the contribution for exemption from military

* Turnbull, p. 102.

† Gambling is also licensed.

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service, called the *lanzas*, the *medias annatas seculares*, the deduction for the pay of invalids, and the tax on pawnbrokers.

5th. Miscellaneous receipts, such as the product of the sales of royal lands, the returns of the old poll tax, the rents of vacant livings and of unclaimed estates, the produce of vendible offices, the *hospitalidades*, and the *peñas de camera*.

6th. Casual receipts, such as deposits, confiscations, donations, the recovery of arrears.*

Of the *Rentas Maritimas* we have the most complete official accounts from 1826 to 1850, giving the totals of each year, but not the details, as these are never given by the Cuban government.

The following tables, as given in the *Diario de la Marina* for January 1, 1852, and which may be considered official, since every thing published in Cuba must first pass under the eye of the government, are the most complete connected account, we believe, of the revenues of Cuba that has ever been published. The returns are in dollars and *reals*. The writer in the *Diario* divides all the revenues of Cuba into two classes: the *Rentas maritimas*, or those derived from the custom-houses, and the *Rentas terrestres*, which include all other revenues whatsoever, enumerated above under the heads 2d, 3d, 4th, 5th and 6th.

Revenues of Cuba, derived from duties on Imports and Exports, from 1826 *to* 1850 *inclusive:*

	Importation duties.		Total Importation and Exportation duties	
1826	$3,782,409	5 reals	$4,683,753	4⅓
1827	4,412,963	2⅓ "	5,659,879	7⅓
1828	4,194,495	1⅓ "	5,309,136	1⅓
1829	3,938,596	5⅓ "	5,193,967	7⅓
1830	3,636,716	2 "	5,027.095	3⅓
1831	3,932,505	7⅓ "	4,795,465	2⅓
1832	3.880,103	6⅓ "	4,792,178	6
1833	4,208,706	1 "	5,235,371	6
1834	4,405.314	1 "	5,098,288	6
1835	4,791,777	3 "	5,426,033	6⅓
1836	5,017,217	4⅓ "	5,743,793	5
1837	4,997,780	4⅓ "	5,809,775	3
1838	5,246,008	0⅓ "	6,098,254	5⅓
1839	6,113,508	3⅓ "	7,363,078	4⅓
1840	5,951,801	7⅓ "	7,487,398	3
1841	5,943,819	6 "	7,266,464	5⅓
1842	6,005,632	5⅓ "	7,383,346	6
1843	5,396,339	4⅓ "	6,987,017	1
1844	6,020,403	1⅓ "	7,160.631	6⅓
1845	5,396,416	5⅓ "	5,970,748	5
1846	5,413.422	3 "	6,152,802	2⅓
1847	6,601,233	7 "	7,494,331	3⅓
1848	6,174,533	4 "	6,863,858	5⅓
1849	5,844,783	2 "	6,429,260	3
1850	5,964,147	5⅓ "	6,721,250	6⅓

* Turnbull's Cuba, p. 105.

The following exhibits the total annual revenue of the island from all sources, to wit: importation and exportation duties, and the *rentas terrestres*, on the authority of the *Diario:*

	Total Revenue.
1826	$7,107,935 6
1827	8,469,974 2⅓
1828	9,086,406 7⅓
1829	9,142,612 3⅓
1830	8,972,547 5
1831	7,297,205 0⅓
1832	8,437,407 5⅓
1833	8,895,457
1834	8,945,734 7⅓
1835	9,297.182 7⅓
1836	9,269,266 2
1837	8,837,165 0⅓
1838	9,672.713 6⅓
1839	11,204,433 5
1840	11,606,203
1841	11,115,341 1
1842	11,661,973
1843	10,394,057 3
1844	10,480,252 7
1845	9,192,078 4⅓
1846	11,140,778 7⅓
1847	12.808,712 7⅓
1848	12,922,573 5⅓
1849	12,664,329
1850	12,248,712 6⅓

In the elaborate official document in the *Diario de la Marina*, from which we derive the figures of the above tables, the writer labors to show that Cuba is one of the most prosperous and happy countries in the world, even more so than the United States. He endeavors to show that we are lamentably oppressed by taxation, and drops a tear over the heavy burthens of imposts that weigh down our people—"*los impuestos que sobre sus habitantes pesan!*"

From the last table above it will be seen that the people of Cuba have to sustain a taxation of about $12,500,000 annually, which is for the free population of the island (600,000) upwards of $20 per head, rich and poor. Now let us look at the "OPPRESSED" states of Ohio, New-York, Maryland, and Pennsylvania, and see how much the people of those states are taxed per head. The following table, which we compile, will show the oppression:

	Population.	Amount of state tax in 1849.	Amount per head.
Ohio	1.980,408	$1,296,347 56	$0 65
New-York	3 097.394	5,548,981 28	1 80
Maryland	583.035	714,987 60	1 40
Pennsylvania	2,311,786	4,433,688 65	1 05

That little or nothing of the $12,000,000 goes to educate the people, we have shown; and as to internal improvements by the government they do not amount to much. It is even a matter of open complaint in Cuba, that although vast

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sums are raised by taxation ostensibly for the purpose of improving the public roads of the island, they are most of the year impassable, so that communications by mail are tediously slow. Even the writer in the *Diario de la Marina*, whom we have quoted, complains that the *Junta de Fomento*, or Board of Improvements, has for many years past done but little for internal improvements, and that little chiefly in the jurisdiction of Havana, notwithstanding that its resources between 1824 and 1850 have amounted to the enormous sum of $9,836,836, or $346,307 annually. With all these means in their hands, says the writer, for the improvement of the public roads, "we have seen the public mail detained from three to four days for the want of bridges, boats, etc."

The writer, who thus exposes the *Junta de Fomento*, which body, since 1824, has had the handling of more than $9,836,836 for internal improvements, without making any, recommends that the Junta be suppressed, and its power and duties merged in those of the Captain-General. Whether the Captain-General would make a better use of the money intended for internal improvements, is very doubtful.

There is great obscurity in all the government returns of Cuba, as regards the gross amount of taxation. The official publications which are made, neither comprehend the whole range of taxes, nor is there generally affixed to each head anything more than the *balance* subject to the control of the general treasury; that is, after deducting the enormous rates allowed those by whom the revenues are collected, the *balance* is reported as the amount of tax levied on the people: so that the $12,000,000, officially reported as being the *whole* tax, is only the *balance*, after all expenses of collection are deducted. The author of "Cuba and the Cubans" estimates that the amount of money actually collected by the Cuban government annually, for taxes, is about *double* the amount officially reported. He shows this to have been the case for the year 1844, and the system is now the same.*

ARMY.—The Captain-General of Cuba is commander-in-chief of the army, which is divided into the regular troops and militia. Of the first there are, in ordinary times, seven regiments of infantry of the line, and five regiments of light infantry; one battalion of eight companies of artillery, one of which is flying; one company of sappers; also, a brigade of two companies, and six of disciplined militia, and four squadrons of royal lancers. The disciplined militia includes three battalions of free colored troops, and two regiments of dragoons (whites). The city militia is composed of eight squadrons of three companies, each containing seventy men. The volunteer *companias sueltas* include eight companies of white infantry and thirteen of cavalry; also twenty-two of free colored infantry, mulattoes and blacks.

These troops are distributed throughout the island; and as the regular army, with all its officers, is from old Spain, the Creole finds but little sympathy in those who are thus sent to enforce his obedience to the exactions of his unnatural parent. Havana, the key to the whole island, is garrisoned by six regiments of infantry, generally of the regular army, one regiment of infantry and one of horse, of the militia, and two battalions of free colored troops.

RELIGION.—The Catholic religion is the only religion tolerated by the government in Cuba. An effort was made, a few years ago, by England, to obtain permission to erect a Protestant church at Havana, but without success. No one can hold property or engage in any kind of business in Cuba, without first acknowledging, in writing, that he is an Apostolical Roman Catholic; but those who have tender consciences leave out the middle term, and it is winked at. The Creoles are said to possess less inimical feeling towards Protestants than the latter, in our northern States, exhibit towards Roman Catholics. The real secret of the matter is, that the Cubans care but little about religion of any kind.

The first cathedral in Cuba was erected in 1518, by Leo X., at Baracoa, which was for a long time the most important place in Cuba. It now contains only 2,600 inhabitants. Adrian VI. removed it to Santiago de Cuba, in 1522. It being destroyed by fire, another was built, but in so bad a manner that it threatened to fall down upon the congregation and priests. They accordingly abandoned it in 1672. The island remained without another until 1690, when another was

* "*Cuba and the Cubans*," pp. 167-181. We should, however, receive the statements of either side, in these matters, with some grains of allowance.

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built by the king of Spain. The early Cuban church was extremely poor. Our Catholic readers will smile at the relation of the historian Morell, that the priests had to dispense with the two *monacilloes*, (boys attendant on the priests,) and supply their place with a negro belonging to the cathedral, on whom they put clothes and shoes, that he might make a decent appearance before the altar. Such was the state of things in 1716, when Bishop Valdez visited the island.

At first, there was but one diocese, which included not only the whole island of Cuba, but also the whole of Louisiana and the two Floridas, and all under one bishop. In 1788, the diocese of Cuba was divided into two, each embracing half of the island. The eastern diocese, or that of Santiago de Cuba, was erected into an archbishopric in 1804; the other, that of Havana, remaining, as now, under a bishop. The diocese of Havana embraces forty-four parochial churches, and seventy-nine auxiliary ones, while the archbishopric contains only twenty-seven parochial churches and twelve auxiliaries; the whole subdivided into curacies.

The revenues of the church are derived from tithes on the products of the island, (sugar estates established since 1805 being alone exempted,) christenings, marriages, deaths, &c. It is true that the possessions of the church were confiscated, some years ago, but the tithes are still collected; and it is generally believed that the amount of tithes finds its way into the public treasury, and is appropriated to other purposes than those of religion.* The amount of tithes collected in 1847 is estimated at $267,444 82, as the average amount annually. The laws require that all who are born and die on the island must be christened and buried by the church. The charge for the baptism of every negro (and all are required to be baptized) is 75 cents, and for his burial $4.50, even if he be only an infant. The price for the burial of a white man is $7, but more is given to the priest as a present. The burial charges of the church for a stranger are generally about $34. All the above fees go to the church. No one without special permission, which is seldom granted, can have a family cemetery on his estate; all must be carried to the public ground, where their remains are not permitted to remain long undisturbed. From 1806 to 1842, a period of thirty-six years, there were buried in the Havana cemetery alone—making allowance for the cholera in 1833—155,304 bodies. The average cost of burial is about $10, which would give the churches of Havana alone, in the thirty-six years, the sum of $1,553,040. What, then, must have been the whole church revenues, from burials, for the whole island? At present, the amount of the free population of Cuba is about 600,000. If the annual mortality of the island is 4 per cent.,* the number of deaths per annum would be, for the whole island, 24,000, which, at $10, would give the church a revenue of $240,000.

The number of marriages in the whole island annually is about 2,400, which, at $5 each on an average, for rich and poor, would yield the church the sum of $12,000. This is, probably, quite too low an estimate. The number of baptisms in the whole island is about 24,000; which, at 75 cents, would be $18,000.

The private extra marriage fees, demanded for marriages under various pretences by the priests, is estimated, by Mr. Sagra,† at $15,000 annually. To all these must be added the burial fees for negroes, slaves, at $4.50 each. The number of slaves in Cuba is about 400,000. A mortality of 4 per cent. would give 16,000, which at $4.50 each would yield the church $72,000. The total revenue then of the Cuban Church, omitting many perquisites, would be:

For tithes	$267,444
Burial fees	240,000
Marriage fees	12,000
Marriage fees, extra	15,000
Baptisms	18,000
Burial of slaves	72,000
Total	$624,444

The state of religion and morals in Cuba is deplorable in the extreme. The seeds of infidelity find a most propitious soil in all the island, under the influence of its depressing and deteriorating government. "No where,"‡ says the author of "Cuba and the Cubans," himself a Cuban and a Catholic, "is presented a more dark and distressing pic-

* "Notes on Cuba," p. 209.

* The author of "Cuba and the Cubans" fixes it at 5 per cent.—p. 175.

† "Cuba and the Cubans," p. 175.

‡ Ibid. p. 152.

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ture of unbelief, corruption and immorality." At the present day, in all the churches in Cuba, a brief mass, scandalously hurried through, and witnessed by a very few, is all that attests the Sabbath of the Lord. The church is attended as a fashionable place for meeting, gayety and flirtation, says the same writer. "The ladies ply the telegraphic fan in the house of God with the same airs of coquetry and playfulness as in the theatre and at the opera, the young gentlemen waiting at the doors for the interchange of glances with their fair friends; and all seem intent on showing, by their smiles and their undisguised disrespect, that they are neither believers nor ashamed of their unbelief. In the church itself are no expounding, no reading, even of the gospel—no visits of the pastors—no consolations carried to the dying—none of the charitable communities that abound in other countries, whether Catholic or Protestant."

Everywhere in Cuba, among all classes, is seen a sneering contempt of religion, and the priests are universally despised. "The gentry, the masters of estates, the officers of government, nay, the very priests themselves," says the author above cited, "exhibit the same painful picture of an all-pervading, all-demoralizing infidelity. The country curates may, in general, and as a class, be set down as an example of all that is corrupt in immorality, all that is disgusting in low and brutal vice."*

The monks of Cuba were once immensely wealthy. They owned large tracts of the richest soil on the island, and their revenues from their plantations were very great. Since the confiscation of their property their power has passed away. Most of them have left the island, their number in Havana by the census of 1842 being reduced to 106, and 188 nuns. It is now quite impossible to say, whether these monks, or the government, who plundered them of their possessions, simply because they were monks, were the more corrupt. Many is the scandalous tale told of the old monks of the island. Their convents were dens of infamy. The old St. Augustine convent was so notorious for the joyous life of its inmates, that many young men of the first families entered it as monks, not, however, to relinquish the vanities of the world, but that they might enjoy them the more freely. The Belenites, especially, were celebrated for their great wealth, having a revenue of about $1,000,000 to be divided between 22, of which their number consisted. They dressed in the finest linen, "and fared sumptuously every day."

What estimation is set upon the Sabbath in Cuba, may be inferred from the fact, that the law licensing *cock-fighting* forbids the exhibitions on all days *but* the Sabbath and other religious holidays. Formerly the robed priest and all his parish visited the cock-pit regularly. Those, by the modern Cubans, are called the palmy days of cock-fighting.* Every town in Cuba has its cock-pit, the amusement being national. Gambling is a universal passion.

But little regard is paid to the rules of the Catholic Church by the priests, respecting marriage. *Padres* not only marry, but laugh at the Pope. They declare themselves *Catholicos Apostolicos*, but not *Romanos*, and say that they do not care a *medio* for the *Papa*. Even the common people laugh at his holiness, and pay scarcely any regard to the ceremonies of the Church, having too poor an opinion of their spiritual leaders in general to place any faith in their doctrines.

In our article on Mexico we delineated a sufficiently lamentable state of things in the Mexican church; but that of Cuba throws the former completely in the shade. The Captain-General is, in fact, the head of the Church in Cuba, in whose hands are its revenues, property and patronage. He nominates, through his officials, and appoints all church officers. The very members of the chapter of the cathedral at Havana are either named by him or at Madrid, in disregard of the canonical proposals of the board according to law. One thing is very singular, that the bishopric of Havana has been suffered to remain vacant for thirty years; during which time the sacrament of confirmation has not been administered in the several districts of the diocese, which should be regularly visited at least once a year.†

FORTRESSES OF CUBA.—The mouth of every river in the island of Cuba, says

* "Cuba and the Cubans," p. 155, et passim.

* "Notes on Cuba," pp. 89–93.
† Cuba and the Cubans, p. 157

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the author of "Notes on Cuba," is guarded by a fort; he does not, however, give any detailed account of the fortifications of the island, and our knowledge regarding them is very limited. The most strongly fortified place in the island is Havana—*La siempre Fidelisima Ciudad de San Cristobal de la Habana*, as it is pompously styled in all formal official documents, or when a Spaniard wishes to speak of the capital of Cuba with becoming solemnity, as in addresses to the throne. Mr. Turnbull very justly observes, that the names the Spaniards give to their cities are as high sounding as those they bestow on their children. Havana has been called the Gibraltar of America. It is doubtful whether it deserves the name; but, as all know, it is a place of considerable strength. Besides the walls and ditches which surround it, the city is defended by six strong fortresses, the Moro Castle, the Cabanas,* Number 4, the Atares, the Principe, and the Punta. The first and last serve to protect the entrance of the harbor; the second is a sort of citadel; and the others are so placed as to cover the approaches by land. In the arsenal of the Havana there have been built, at different times, 49 ships of the line, 22 frigates, seven packet ships, nine brigs of war, and 14 war schooners. The whole line of fortification embraces a sort of irregular polygon, of an elliptical form, the greater diameter of which is 2,100 yards, and the smaller 1,200 yards in extent. The entrance to the harbor of Havana is between the Moro and Punta castles, and is about 1,500 yards long, and 350 yards wide in the narrowest part. It is undoubtedly one of the safest, best defended, and most capacious harbors in the world. The depth of water at the entrance is not less than eight fathoms, at low water. The tide there rises about 22 inches.

The Moro and Punta fortresses were commenced by the first governor of Havana, Don Juan de Tejada, between 1584 and 1602. The English tried to take Havana by assault, in 1655, but failed, with a great loss of men, having been frustrated, as historians relate, by a miracle, the memory of which is still perpetuated by the name of *los congrejos*, the crab miracle. It is a Spanish tale told on the English, but whether it was a genuine miracle, or the invention of some cunning *padre*, we shall leave it for our readers to decide. It is related that the English disembarked on the coast during a dark night, but became so alarmed by the noise of the land crabs, (of which we have already spoken,) among the dead leaves of the mangroves, and by the lights of the immense numbers of *cocullos*, (fire-flies,) that they believed they had fallen into an ambush; and filled with terror, they fled to their boats in the greatest disorder. In 1762, however, they were more successful. With a fleet of 53 vessels, carrying 2,268 guns, under Sir George Peacock, and a land force of 14,400 men under the Count of Albemarle, they took the city, and destroyed the Moro. The Spanish land force consisted of 27,000 men and a fleet of 16 vessels. The booty seized by the English amounted to about $3,500,000* After this, when the island was restored to Spain, more extensive fortifications were made from funds drawn from the mines of Mexico.†

The Spanish authorities at Havana are extremely jealous of the curiosity of foreigners, allowing no one to visit the interior of the fortifications.

The entrance of the harbor of Santiago is also strongly defended by a fortress called Moro, standing on a rocky eminence; and also by a fortification, La Estrella, erected on the same side, near the level of the water, just within the extreme point on which the Moro stands. The harbor is about four miles in length, from north to south, narrow, but very deep.

No writer, we believe, has attempted to give a detailed account of all the military works of Cuba; indeed, with the excep-

* This fortress cost $40,000,000.

* The English plundered the clergy of Havana most unmercifully. The following letter from Count Albemarle, commander of the land forces, to the Bishop of Havana, will show how politely the thing was done:

"MOST ILLUSTRIOUS SIR:—I am sorry to be under the necessity of writing to your Lordship what ought to have been thought of some days ago, viz: a donation from the Church to the Commander-in-Chief of the victorious army. The least that your Lordship can offer will be $100,000. I wish to live in peace with your Lordship and with the Church, as I have shown in all that has hitherto occurred, and I hope that your Lordship will not give me reason to alter my intentions. I kiss your Lordship's hands.

"Your humble servant,
"ALBEMARLE."

"Havana, 19th Oct. 1762."

† Apuntes, para la Historica de la Isla de Cuba.

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tion of those of Havana, nothing is known of the other fortifications except what can be gleaned from the merely accidental notices of travelers. This arises from the fact, that travelers generally are more intent upon making a book than on giving information. We presume, however, that with the exception of those of Havana, the fortifications of Cuba are quite insignificant.

GOVERNMENT.—The government of Cuba is that of an almost absolute vice-royalty. The governor of the island, who bears the pompous title of *Gobernador Superior Civil, Presidente de las Audiencias y Capitan General de la Isla*, is, in fact, the *Alter Ego* of the sovereign of Spain, and dependent upon no other person. His word is law, his decisions are final, and it is an act of sedition for more than two persons to lay at his feet a petition. By the royal order of the Crown of Spain, dated Madrid, 28th of May, 1825, which order has ever since been, and is now, in full force, the captain-generals are clothed with almost unlimited powers, to enable them, in the language of the order itself, "to keep in quietude H. M. faithful inhabitants, confine within the proper limits such as would deviate from the path of honor, and punish such as, forgetting their duties, would dare commit excesses in opposition to our wise laws;" "and to prevent the embarrassments which, under extraordinary circumstances, might arise from a division in the command, and from the complicated authority and powers of the different officers of government, for the important end of maintaining in that island his sovereign authority and the public quiet," the captain-generals are invested,

1. With the whole extent of power, which, by the Royal Ordinances, is granted to the governors of besieged towns. That is—the isle of Cuba has been, ever since 1825, under martial law.

2. The captain-general has "most ample and unrestricted authority" to remove from the island "such persons holding offices, from the government or not, whatever their occupation, rank, class, or situation in life may be, whose residence there you (the captain-general) may believe prejudicial, or whose public or private conduct may appear *suspicious* to you; employing in their stead faithful servants of H. M., who shall fully deserve your excellency's confidence."

3. The captain-general is also empowered to suspend the execution of whatever royal orders or general decrees, in all the different branches of the administration, or in any part of them, as he may think conducive to the royal service; his acts only being subject to the approval of the sovereign of Spain.

On the death of Ferdinand VII. Cuba was included in the constitutional reform, published in the *Estatuto Real*. In 1837, the democratic constitution of 1812 was proclaimed, and General Lorenzo, Governor of Santiago, repeated its promulgation in Santiago. Captain-General Tacon sent an armed expedition to put down the movement. General Lorenzo took refuge on board of a British man-of-war, on the invitation of the commander, whose name is suppressed. Lorenzo was taken to Havana, and delivered to Tacon, who banished him from the island. Thus was suppressed all constitutional government and rights in Cuba. Mr. Turnbull declares that the delivery of Lorenzo to Tacon was by the agreement of the former, and not from any treachery on the part of the English commander.

To complete the subjugation of Cuba and strip it of its rights, the Cuban deputies legally elected, were, the same year, (1837,) refused admittance at the Spanish Cortes, all colonial representation being denied. The Cortes, at the same time, passed a resolution declaring that hereafter Cuba should be governed by special laws.*

The isle of Cuba is divided into several distinct jurisdictions—civil, judicial, military, and ecclesiastical. The military comprises the whole island, and is divided into two departments, a western and an eastern, each embracing one-half of the island. There was a department of the centre, which was suppressed in August, 1851; and the writer of the paper in the *Diario de la Marina*, which we have so often quoted, intimates that the suppression also of the eastern department is contemplated, and would be an improvement. Each of the two departments is divided into sections, partidos, and cuartones. Each department is under a commander-general; each section under a commander-of-arms; each partido under a petty judge, with the title

* Cuba and the Cubans, pp. 181-2. Turnbull's Cuba, p. 22.

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of captain; and each cuarton under a leader of patrol. The captain-general is the supreme military chief of the whole island.

The political division of the island is divided into two provinces—the western, that of Havana; and the eastern, that of Santiago de Cuba. The captain is the civil governor of the western; and the governor of Santiago that of the eastern.

The judicial division contains two jurisdictions—that of the Royal Pretorian Audience of Havana, and that of the Royal Audience of Puerto Principe. The first comprises the western department, and the second the eastern.

The maritime division comprises the whole island, under a general marine command. It is divided into five provinces—Havana, Trinidad, San Juan de los Remedios, Neuvitas and Cuba, which are also divided into districts. Each province has a commander, and each district an adjutant.

The division of the Real Hacienda, as a superintendency, includes the whole island, and is subdivided into three intendencies — Havana, Puerto Principe and Cuba; and these again are subdivided into sub-delegations. The ecclesiastical divisions we have already described under the head of Religion.

At Matanzas, Trinidad de Cuba, Puerto Principe and Cienfuegos, there are officers with the title of governor, who are appointed by the captain-general, but whose office is in fact of a judicial nature, extending to disputed points of every sort, civil, criminal, or military. Subordinate to them are eight lieutenancies, called *capitanias à guerra.*

The captain-general of the island has appellate jurisdiction in military matters, and is president *ex officio* of the *Real Audiencia* at Puerto Principe, which tribunal has appellate jurisdiction in all other affairs, civil or criminal, brought before it *in foro contentioso.* In all the cities and towns of the island there are municipal bodies called *ayuntamientos perpetuos*, exercising judicial functions. There are also, in the rural districts, officers called *jueces padaneos*, a sort of itinerant village judges or justices of the peace, appointed by the local governors. Their functions resemble more those of a commissary of police than those of a magistrate, it being their duty to watch over the movements of the people, to preserve the tranquillity of their districts, and arrest all deserters or delinquents, transmitting annually to the captain-general a statistical return or census of all the inhabitants residing within their jurisdiction. In all the provinces there is a large number of these.* They are a set of worthies generally represented as very corrupt. Such is the character, indeed, given to all the petty officers of the government. They are nearly all of them from old Spain, a Creole being scarcely ever intrusted with any office. Those officers, dependent on their fees, prey like so many vultures upon the unprotected within their jurisdiction. Nor are the rich without the pale of their power; and those having no influence with the heads of the island government, are sometimes largely fleeced by them on most frivolous pretexts. Some of them make a boast of the large fines they constantly collect from the people.† The administration of justice in criminal cases, in Cuba, is unique. The accused is required to prove his *innocence*, instead of his being accounted innocent until his guilt is established by legal evidence. Trial by jury is, of course, unknown.

The *ayuntamiento* of Havana consists at present, we believe, of twelve *corregidores.* They form a body, which perpetuates itself with the aid of the captain-general, who presides over their meetings. They were formerly elected by the people, but under the present improved state of things, the people are relieved from all trouble about their election. Each of the members is bound to take the same oath as is administered to the Spanish military orders of Santiago, Alcontava and Calatrava, which is "to defend the purity of the Conception of the Holy Virgin."‡

The chief secular tribunals of the Havana are—first, that of the captain-general, who has for his assessors in military matters an *auditor de guerra*, and in civil disputes the *asesores generales*, who likewise exercise the duties of the civil magistracy of their own proper authority. The tribunal of the *alcaldes ordinarios* has also cognizance, in the first instance, of civil and military disputes. The *ayuntamiento* itself also has a certain judicial jurisdiction, as in cases involving a sum not exceeding

* Turnbull's Cuba, p. 244.
† Notes on Cuba, p. 129.
‡ Turnbull's Cuba, p. 247.

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$300, in which it hears and decides an appeal from other decisions. The appeal must be heard within thirty days, and a judgment be rendered within forty. This term is declared to be *impregnable;* in so much so, that an hour after it expires the jurisdiction ceases, the cause remains *in statu quo ante,* and the original sentence becomes irrevocable. In these cases of appeal the whole *ayuntamiento* does not sit: it names two commissioners, who, together with the judge, *a quo,* and the assessors of the captain-general, decide the case.*

Sixteen commissaries of police are appointed annually by the *ayuntamientos* for the various districts or *barrios* into which the city is divided.

There is also a commercial tribunal at Havana, consisting of a *prior, consuls,* a *consultor,* and an *escribano,* whose jurisdiction extends only to commercial affairs; but before any one can address himself to this tribunal, he must first go before the *juez avenidor,* or mediating judge, whose duty it is, like that of the *juge de paix,* in France, to endeavor to conciliate the parties, and prevent litigation; but the result is more generally a multiplication of fees, since the honest mediator must also be paid for his trouble.

All judges and other judicial functionaries, of Cuba, from the President of the *Real Audiencia,* or Supreme Court, of Puerto Principe, to the alguazil and door-keeper, are all paid by fees instead of salaries. The fee of the judge is determined by his rank and the length of his sittings; so that he is never tired of sitting—"an admirable contrivance," says Mr. Turnbull, "for making justice not cheap and speedy, but as dear and dilatory as possible." Cuban judges know how to turn the law's delay to profitable account. The *juez letrado,* or judge learned in the law, is paid $1 25 per hour in all cases, besides fifty cents for his signature.* If required to leave the town where his court is held, he receives $10 for every day, or part of a day, he is engaged. The fee of a *juez no letrado* is $1 per hour, and $6 per day, if he goes out of town; and fifty cents for his signature.

Judicial proceedings are wholly conducted in writing; *viva voce* pleading, like trial by jury, being totally unknown. Lawyers are paid according to the number of pages to which they can spin out their argument; and the assessor, who reads the pleadings, and makes his report on them to the judge, is paid at the same rate with the *abogado,* or twenty-five cents per folio, which makes the fee of the assessor equal to the joint fees of the lawyers on both sides. For interlocutory judgments the assessor receives $4; and for definitive judgments $8. The assessors are paid also for attendance at the same rate with the judges of the highest class.

* Turnbull's Cuba, p. 247–8.

ART. II.—SHIP CANAL ACROSS THE PENINSULA OF FLORIDA.

THE project of a ship canal across the Peninsula of Florida is of long standing. The dangers of the intricate navigation among the reefs and sunken rocks which encircle the southern end of the peninsula, as well as the extensive detour to reach the Gulf ports, have long made it desirable to the commercial world to find some means of obviating these dangers and difficulties. A ship canal has, in the first instance, been naturally suggested as the most advantageous mode, if practicable, of overcoming these obstacles.

By a glance at the map it will be seen that the Peninsula of Florida extends some degrees of latitude southwardly along the Atlantic coast into the Gulf, and consequently the commerce of the Valley of the Mississippi and the great west is obliged to make a long detour to the southward, and thread an intricate channel amid reefs and shoals in order to reach the Atlantic or continental parts, passing several hundreds of miles out of their direct course, with

* To this price for a signature we do not complain; for we have been charged by notaries, a good way this side of Cuba, $2 for a bare signature.

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great loss of time and exposed to dangerous risks.

This it will be seen would be entirely obviated by a connection of the Gulf with the Atlantic by means of an artificial channel, carried across the upper or northern portion of the peninsula, and most favorably as to direction at the points where the peninsular formation begins. These points are presented on the Gulf at the Harbor of St. Mark's, Cedar Keys, or Tampa Bay, and on the Atlantic coast, by the mouths of the St. John's and St. Mary's Rivers. Of these harbors, in their present situation, Tampa Bay, the most southerly of these named, is the most suitable on the Gulf, on account of sufficient depth of water, and for a like reason St. Mary's is the most suitable on the Atlantic side. These two harbors, at their most proximate points, are — miles distant from each other. The harbors on each side, nearest to each other, are those of Cedar Keys on the Gulf and St. John's on the Atlantic, but neither of these will now admit vessels drawing more than twelve feet. It is, however, conjectured that the bar of the St. John's River may be considerably improved at a moderate outlay. It is not probable that any increased depth of water could by any practicable means be obtained at Cedar Keys. If the entrance to the St. John's River could be improved, then Tampa Bay would, in respect to the necessary depth of water, be the most available point of connection, and at the nearest practicable points would be a distance of — miles.

Suggestions have also been made of making artificial harbors at Indian River and St. Augustine. But, referring to those now in existence, it will be seen that the only harbors now possessing the requisite depth of water are Tampa Bay and St. Mary's, — miles apart.

The next question which presents itself is, as to whether the nature of the country through which such a channel would have to be constructed, affords the requisite supply of water, and is in other respects practicable for such a work.

As has been remarked, the Peninsula of Florida extends southwardly about four hundred miles, with an average width of about one hundred. The only rivers of much importance within this Peninsula, are the St. John's, and its tributary, the Ocklawaha. This most singular river, the St. John's, heads in the southerly portion, runs due north, parallel with the eastern coast, and empties into the Atlantic, about lat. 30°. Its tributary, the Ocklawaha, likewise runs from the south, parallel for a long distance with the St. John's, and empties into that river about 120 miles above its mouth, the sources of each, as of most of the peninsular streams, are to be found in cypress swamps and wet savannas. They have but little current, and the St. John's is affected by the tide for 100 miles from its mouth, and resembles more an arm of the sea than an ordinary river. Upon the Gulf side a few small streams, having their sources at no great elevation above tide-water, run their short courses sluggishly, and empty into the sea. The highest point of elevation of the surveyed country is found a few miles west of the St. John's, and is 160 feet. A range or ridge of sand hills extends along, parallel with the St. John's from the St. Mary's, some 150 or 200 miles southwardly. On the summit of this range a large number of small lakes or ponds are found without any apparent connection with each other, and the larger number without any visible outlet or inlet. The soil of this ridge is for the most part a coarse loose sand, constituting sand hills of a most barren and unproductive description. Further to the west, a limestone formation presents itself of a loose kind, with flint rock. In this section sinks and caverns, or rock wells abound; numerous small streams disappear in these sinks, and there is evidently a disjointed subterraneous formation.

It seems not to be generally understood that an examination and topographical survey by a board of engineers was had in 1827 and 1828, under the direction of Gen. Bernard. The country was explored and lines of level run in several directions, embracing St. Mark's as the most northerly-westerly terminus, and Tampa Bay as the most southerly. The capacity of all the lakes and streams which might be used to supply such a canal was estimated, and a full report, accompanied with a large map, was made by them, and published by Congress in 1829. It is sufficient to say, that they reported unfavorably in reference to a ship canal, on the ground of a deficiency of water upon the sum-

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mit levels to supply a canal of the required size. They, however, reported that a canal of ordinary size and depth might probably be constructed. From the results of personal observation of the face of the country between the St. John's River and the Gulf of Mexico, the writer entertains but little doubt of the correctness of the conclusions arrived at by the board of survey, although he would gladly be convinced otherwise.

At the last session of Congress the subject of a ship canal across the Peninsula of Florida was brought up before the Senate by Senator Brooke, of Mississippi, and a favorable report made upon the subject by the Secretary of the Treasury; an appropriation of $20,000 was thereupon made, and we presume during the coming winter a new survey will be made upon other proposed lines than those which have been already examined, but we entertain no expectation that any route will be found which will afford anything more extensive than a boat canal.

Two routes have recently been brought before the public, the one contemplating cutting through from Tampa Bay to Indian River, and the other from the St. John's to St. Mark's, for both of which routes a sufficient supply of water is claimed. In reference to the first named, it may be remarked, that neither the upper St. John's nor Indian River possesses much depth of water, which difficulty it is proposed to obviate by the construction of an artificial harbor at Indian River. Whether such a harbor, laying its coast aside, could be constructed, which would not be affected by the storms of the Atlantic, is a question not yet, we believe, solved by experience in any similar locality. The second route from St. John's to St. Mark's, admitting the conjectures as to quantity of water at summit levels, labors under the disadvantage of having a suitable harbor at neither end, and requiring the expenditure of large sums of money to make and improve harbors at both ends of the route.

But, admitting there are any other plans to be physically practicable, there are other extraneous difficulties in the way of the accomplishment of such a gigantic plan as the construction of a ship canal, costing, probably, not less than one hundred millions of dollars. The first of these is, the object, in a pecuniary view, is not equivalent to the expense; and secondly, that the aid of the general government cannot be obtained. The work would be a southern one, and although in all respects a national object, yet the past legislation of Congress has shown that the South never has and probably never will obtain the aid of the government in any extensive works of public improvement. The Florida reefs, bordering a national and world-used channel, have been left but scantily lighted for years, in face of the urgent solicitations of the commercial world, and they have been, indeed, but recently surveyed. Of the annual appropriations for rivers and harbors, but a pittance comes to the South. The political influence of the South is not now and will not be very soon sufficient to obtain from the general government the funds for the construction of such a work. I have seen an estimate of its expense, but in the November No. of this Review I see an estimate of a ship canal of seven miles in length, with artificial harbor at the mouth of the Mississippi to be 30 feet in depth and 100 feet wide, set down at over $10,000,000. What, then, will be the estimate of one from one to two hundred miles in length? There will be, moreover, to be encountered the constitutional scruples entertained at the South itself in reference to the power of the general government to engage in such a work.

A ship rail-road has also been suggested. We fear a road sufficient to transport a laden ship weighing, say 2,000 tons, would require a new race of Brobdignags to construct and engineer the matter.

In view of all these difficulties and obstacles, would it not be better to look at the actual and practical wants of our country, and the feasible and accessible mode of supplying them? It seems to us that the true interests of commerce require the immediate construction of a rail-road across the peninsula. This subject has been fully discussed in former numbers of this Review, and its importance to the commerce of the country, and particularly to that between the Atlantic and New-Orleans and the Gulf ports, fully demonstrated, besides its forming a link to the transit trade of the Pacific.

It is estimated that a first-class rail-

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road may be constructed to connect the Atlantic and Gulf at a cost of less than three millions of dollars, fully furnished and equipped. Such a road would bring New-York and New-Orleans within four days of each other, and as a part of the chain of travel to California it would lessen the time very materially. It could, moreover, be constructed within a twelvemonth, if desired. All things considered, we believe no projected route possesses the commercial advantages of a direct route across the Peninsula of Florida. Five hours of time would transfer the traveler from the Atlantic to the Gulf, and avoid a circuit of nearly one thousand miles. Two rival companies are now endeavoring to reach the Gulf through the State of Georgia, the one from Brunswick and the other to connect with Savannah, and the city of Savannah has voted a subscription of half a million towards the one making its terminus there. With similar public spirit, New-Orleans would long since have constructed a road across Florida. The Georgia routes are over 500 miles in length; one across Florida would not need to be more than 150 in length across a level country, and of cheap construction.

ART. III.—SOUTHERN ENTERPRISE—LINE OF STEAM-SHIPS FROM NORFOLK TO EUROPE.

[We have on several occasions called attention, through the pages of the Review, to the movement being made in Virginia, for the establishment of a line of foreign steamers, and have, in our volumes upon the Industrial Resources of the South, condensed a vast amount of information upon the general subject. We are pleased to add the following contribution.]—Editor.

Our attention has been forcibly attracted by a correspondence, published in the Southern Literary Messenger, and headed, "A Line of Steamers from Virginia to Europe." The correspondence is conducted with marked ability, demonstrating clearly that the gentlemen conducting it are well-informed on the subject they present for Southern consideration. Connected with the correspondence, (and forming a part of it,) is a letter from the Hon. John Y. Mason, giving his full concurrence in their views.

We solicit attention to this subject, as one of vital interest to the South, and which should be well understood by our southern readers. If approved by them, their co-operation will insure success to the plan proposed. Let the South be true to herself, and she can, without trespassing in the slightest degree on the rights or immunities of her Northern sisters, command a very large share of foreign trade. The staples in that trade are cotton, tobacco and flour. The South produces, and has command of the two first and most important articles, (cotton and tobacco,) and her flour is notoriously the best for exportation, (keeping, as it does, sweet in all climates throughout the season.) We have always had within our reach a large share of foreign commerce, the advantages of which we have declined, and with unrivaling and sisterly affection poured into the lap of our sister state, New-York. That state, through the labor of the South, has acquired influence, opulence and power. We of the South have been pleased to witness her prosperity, feeling that we had contributed much to her onward march to greatness. That greatness, acquired by our liberality and labor, has reached a pitch threatening our commercial independence. The prices of our staples are regulated by her standard. She, combined with a port in Europe, (Liverpool,) settles the amount we shall receive for our labor. New-York has not claimed this supremacy, this dictatorial power to regulate, and fix the price on our productions; but it was a voluntary surrender on the part of the South, of which New-York very properly availed herself, and through which she has acquired an influence and wealth, subversive of southern advancement in commercial prosperity. The circumstances of our country, at the time of this voluntary surrender of trade, bear no resemblance to her present condition. At that time our trade was contracted, our capital limit-

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ed, and the balance of trade very heavily against us. The rivalry then was between this nation and our foreign markets, principally English. With a contracted trade and limited capital, and that capital, limited as it was, principally foreign, our position among the commercial nations of the earth was, indeed, pitiable. To remedy this deplorable state of things, to lessen the ruinous balances of trade against us, was a subject well-calculated to attract the attention and excite the energies of every patriot citizen. New-York took the start in this laudable and patriotic enterprise. Her success has vastly exceeded our most sanguine expectations, and has totally changed our position among the commercial nations of the earth. We are not now in a pitiable condition; our sails whiten every sea, our commerce penetrates every port. With boundless capital, and daily increasing commercial resources, the day cannot be distant when we shall stand first on the list of commercial nations. This radical change in our position as a commercial nation, has given rise to a perfectly new rivalry, not foreign, but purely domestic; it exists at present between the Northern and Southern sections of our federation.

Up to the present time the northern section has enjoyed almost the whole profits accruing from our foreign trade, giving to that section an amount of capital equal to a successful prosecution of the whole trade. Under this state of things the South has, and will continue to languish, until by a united, vigorous and successful effort, she regains her share of the profits arising from foreign commerce. The effort should not only be combined and vigorous, but to insure success it must be concentered. A point the most eligible on our southern Atlantic coast should be selected. Petty ocal prepossessions or prejudices, in avor of this point or that, should be sacrificed on the altar erected to southern intefests, and an equal participation on the part of the South in all the advantages of foreign commerce. It is with regret that we express the opinion which, on reflection, will, we fear, be found true, that petty local jealousies have had much to do in retarding our onward march to wealth and power.

By reference to the able correspondence to which we have solicited attention, it will be found that Norfolk, Virginia, is the point selected as the great entrepot of southern commerce. The advantages of this selection have been too clearly and powerfully portrayed by the writers to require further illustration. If the South will, with one heart and one hand, unite upon this point, Norfolk will in a very few years prove a successful rival of New-York in commercial enterprise.

Timid men will talk of the disproportion of northern and southern capital—the abundance in the North, the sparcity in the South, and quote upon us the old mercantile dogma, (not less erroneous than old,) that capital would attract and command commerce. The converse of this old mercantile dogma is literally true — commerce attracts, and commands capital. Surplus production is necessary to commercial relations; and wherever that surplus product can be brought to a practicable mart, capital will most certainly seek and find it. It is unnecessary to go into an elaborate argument to prove the correctness of this position. We have it too clearly demonstrated in the unexampled growth of new towns on our lakes and western waters. Regarding this position as conclusively settled, our attention is next directed to the character and quantity of surplus southern production. The production of cotton and sugar we know is confined to the southern section of our Union. Our surplus in cotton is in quantity, equal to every demand, and can be extended to an almost unlimited amount. At present we have no surplus production of sugar; not enough, indeed, for our domestic wants. This article though has to find an Atlantic port for its distribution. Tobacco is also an exclusive southern product, and an article entering largely in our foreign trade. The South, by concentrating her surplus products at any eligible point, can make that point the great emporium of foreign commerce. Whether the capital is at the point selected or not, it will, as certainly as the night follows the day, find its way there. The first step, then, to be taken in connection with the plan proposed by the correspondence, is to establish a direct trade between Norfolk and our ports on the Gulf of Mexico.

The South has of late acquired new territory for her enterprises, extending

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from the western bank of the river Sabine on the East, to the middle of the Rio Grande on the West, fronting the Gulf of Mexico, between three and four hundred miles; with a climate notoriously salubrious, and well adapted to the cultivation of cotton, sugar, tobacco and indigo; with a soil unsurpassed in fertility; with a flood of population overspreading it, and with already seven ports of entry within its limits (to wit): the ports of Sabine, Galveston, Matagorda, Arranzas, Brazos Santiago, &c., and Brownsville. In a few years the exports from these ports alone would make any Atlantic seaport on which they centered an important commercial point. Norfolk is the natural point for concentration. Sail vessels can make a voyage between any port of the Gulf of Mexico and Norfolk in one-fourth less time than to any northern Atlantic seaport; and it will be conceded on all hands, that there is not a more eligible point for European trade on the whole Atlantic coast than Norfolk.

ART. IV.—PROGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES—CENSUS OF EIGHTEEN HUNDRED AND FIFTY.

[We have presented the statistics of the United States' census to our readers, as fast as they were published, and a large volume of them will be found in the "Industrial Resources," where they have been condensed, in comparison with previous returns, from the beginning of the government. We continue the subject, and will endeavor to finish it in the present volume of the Review, which will constitute the fourth of the Industrial Resources, and make that work, in every respect, complete. Mr. Kennedy, the able Superintendent of the Census Department, deserves the approval of every good citizen for the zeal and ability with which his labors have been discharged.]

During the sixty years which preceded the census of 1850, the annual increase of population, as has been shown by the superintendent, and appears in our volumes, has been 3½ per cent.

By the census of 1851, it appears that the population of England, Ireland, Scotland, Wales, and the islands, including persons in the army, navy, and the merchant service, amounted to 27,619,866, of whom 13,536,052 were males, and 14,082,814 were females.

This population is distributed as follows, viz:—

	Houses.	Males.	Females.
England and Wales	3,280,961	8,762,588	9,160,180
Scotland	366,650	1,363,622	1,507,162
Ireland	1,047,735	3,176,727	3,339,067
Islands in the British seas	21,826	65,511	76,405
Part of the Army and Navy out of the Kingdom		167,604	
	4,717,172	13,536,052	14,082,814

There exists no official record of the population of England previous to the commencement of the present century. The first enumeration of the population of Ireland was made in 1813, but so imperfectly was the work accomplished that English statists place no reliance on the correctness of the returns, and make no use of them as the basis of calculation; so that the only tables upon which we can base statements, with reference to the progress of Ireland from time to time, must be made with reference to the termination of each ten years, ending in 1831, 1841, and 1851. The first census of Great Britain was taken in 1801, at which date the population amounted to 10,567,893.

By the census of 1841, the population of Great Britain, and the islands of Jersey, Guernsey, and Man, amounted to 18,658,372. During each ten years, from 1801 to 1851, the actual increase was as follows, viz:—1,479,562—2,132,896—2,184,542—2,260,749—2,227,438, being at the rate of 14,18,15,14, and 12 per cent. respectively. The actual increase of the population in fifty years, has been 10,317,917; the rate per cent. in fifty years, 98; the annual rate per cent. being 137.

With respect to Ireland and the returns of 1821, the number of inhabitants at that period was 6,801,827. In 1831, 7,767,401—increase, 965,574; rate per cent., 14, 19. In 1841, 8,175,124—increase, 407,723; rate per cent., 5, 25. In 1851, 6,515,794—decrease, 1,659,330; rate per cent. 20. By this statement we perceive that the population of Ireland increased from 1821 to 1841, at the average rate of about one per cent per annum; while a decrease of 1,659,330 from

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1841 to 1851, indicates a most appalling diminution of population, amounting to two per cent. per annum, or 20 per cent. for the entire ten years—a reduction amounting to the total emigration from the whole United Kingdom from 1839 to 1850.

The contemplation of such a state of affairs is the more melancholy, when we consider that the great diminution of population, in place of being equalized through the period of ten years, must have occurred mainly within one or two years; a reduction of population sinking the number of people to a lower point than it was in 1821, when the first census of Ireland was taken, and it would appear in still stronger light if we were to calculate the natural progress the population would have made up to 1846, the year of famine, and estimate what should be the present population, if no unnatural cause had operated to reduce it.

The decrease extended to no less than 31 counties and cities, and varied from 9 to 31 per cent., while the only increase which occurred was confined to 9 towns and cities, to which many probably fled to find relief. The greatest decrease occurred in the county of Cork, the population of which was reduced 222,246, viz.:—from 773,398 inhabitants in 1841, to 551,152 in 1851—equivalent to a reduction of 28 per cent.

The decrease in the several provinces was as follows, viz.:—Leinster, 305,960; Munster, 564,344; Ulster, 382,084; Connaught, 406,942.

These startling and appalling facts proclaim the reality of the sufferings experienced from the famine in Ireland; and it is some consolation to feel that our distance did not preclude those efforts in her behalf by our own citizens and government, without which the desolation would have been even more strongly marked.

During ten years, the population of the entire kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland increased from 26,833,496 to 27,452,262, or at the rate of a little more than half a million in ten years. In the last fifty years, England and Wales increased 102 per cent., (males, 105; females, 97.50;) Scotland, 78 per cent., (males, 84; females, 73.) The population of the United States during the past fifty years has increased at the rate of 337 per cent., and in ten years intervening between the last two censuses, increased from seventeen and a fraction millions to over twenty-three millions, or 36 per cent. During the same period, (leaving Ireland out of view,) the population of Great Britain increased at the rate of 12 per cent. during ten years, or 1 2-10 per cent. per annum.

Houses.—By the last census, it appears that in the United States the number of houses occupied by free persons, amounted to 3,363,427. It would seem from the British reports, that the population of that country is supplied with houses almost in the precise proportion as in our own country. The proportion being so very near alike in the two countries, it would be, perhaps, satisfactory to institute some inquiry concerning the character of what are termed "houses," by the British census, that we may be enabled to judge of the propriety of estimating the degree of comfort enjoyed by the people, by their house accommodations.

While our country cannot boast of the princely residences of European countries—the occupancy of which is limited to comparatively few persons—we think there is a general sufficiency and comfort in the house-accommodations of the American people, and that in the most remote regions of our country, they exhibit a very satisfactory degree of comfort and cleanliness where their accommodations are most limited. The fact is notorious that, where wretchedness is at all general, there will be found a population which formed habits and imbibed tastes in a foreign land.

In comparing the population of Great Britain and Ireland with the inhabited houses, it appears that the whole number of houses in Great Britain amounts to 3,669,437, being nearly one house to each six persons. In Ireland, the number of inhabited houses amounts to 1,047,735, being the proportion of two houses to each thirteen persons. The fact is somewhat extraordinary, that almost precisely in proportion to the diminution of the Irish population since 1841, has been the reduction in the number of houses. By this is not meant the "Inhabited Houses," but the whole number, including inhabited and uninhabited, built and building, the number of which, in 1841, was 1,384,360 to 1,115,007 in 1851; being a reduction of 269,353. The fact is unquestioned, that

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in a very great number of instances in Ireland the term "house" should be understood merely as applying to something containing human beings, and not as indicating such a structure as the term usually signifies.

BELGIUM—POPULATION AND HOUSES.—The population of Belgium, on the 31st December, 1845, amounted to 4,298,560; on the 15th October, 1846, to 4,337,196.

In the cities of Belgium, the houses inhabited amount to 170,455, and those uninhabited to 9,302. In the rural communes, the inhabited houses number 629,393; the uninhabited 20,411. Total number of inhabited houses 799,848; uninhabited, 29,713. Of these houses 78.20 per cent. had but one (basement) story; 18.32 per cent. were of two stories, including the basement; and 3.48 per cent. were of three or more stories, including the basement. Of the entire number of houses, 160,500 were insured against fire for the average amount of 6,811 francs. One-fourth of the Belgian population is found inclosed in cities, and the other three-fourths spread over the rural communes. Of the number of dwelling-houses in cities, 72,407 had but one room for a family; 65,461 had two rooms; and 100,402 had three or more rooms for a family. In the rural communes, 82,047 houses had but one room for a family; 217,324 had two rooms, and 352,925 had three or more rooms for a family.

PRUSSIA.—For the first time the Prussion government has made provision for the publication of their statistics in an extended form. Their census was taken at the close of the year 1849, of which a portion of the results have been published in one large quarto volume, to be followed by two others, under the direction of Ditricé, Director of the Statistical Bureau. The subjects embraced, and the divisions included, are public buildings enumerated as churches and houses for prayer, school-houses, orphan and poor asylums, buildings for the administration of public affairs, justice, customs, &c.; buildings for ecclesiastical and communal magistracies, military and hospital buildings, private dwelling-houses, factories, mills, &c., stables and barns; population, male and female, at the ages of 5, 7, 14, 16, 19, 24, 32, 39, 45 and 60th year, and those over 60. They are enumerated also according to religion, as far as respects Evangelical Christians, Roman Catholics, Greek Christians, Menonites and Jews. The deaf and dumb are returned as to age and sex, enumerating them at the ages of 5, 15, 30, and over, respectively; and the blind are returned by age and sex at the ages of 15, 30, and over 30, respectively. They enumerate their horses, asses, mules, cattle, hogs, sheep, and goats, dividing the sheep into three classes. By their census (1839), the population of Prussia amounts to—

Males	8,162,805
Females	8,168,382
Total	16,331,187
Number of families	3,180,707
Number of dwelling-houses	1,945,174

Number of churches, 16,897; school-houses, 23,384; asylums for orphans and destitute persons, 5,710; civil, ecclesiastical, military, and hospital buildings, 35,353.

The Evangelical Christians number		10,020,161
Roman Catholics	"	6,076,252
Deaf and Dumb	"	11,973
Blind	"	9,579

POPULATION OF FRANCE.

Year.	Men.	Women.	Total	Increase population.	For the pe'd.	Annual.
1801	13,311,889	14,037,114	27,349,003	....	....	....
1806	14,312,850	14,794,575	29,107,425	1,758,422	6.43	1.28
1821	14,796,775	15,665,100	30.461,875	1,354,450	4.65	0.31
1831	15,930,095	16.619,128	32.569.223	2,107,348	6.92	0.69
1836	16,460,701	17,080,209	33,540,910	971,687	3.00	0.60
1841	16,908,674	17,321,504	34,240,178	699,268	2.05	0.41
1846	17,544,083	17,858,003	35,400,486	1,160,308	3.42	0.68
1851	....	....	35,781,628	381,142	1.06	0.21

From the foregoing statement it will be seen that France, with a population of more than thirty-five millions, has increased in the number of her people but little more than the two States of New-York and Pennsylvania, with not more than one-third her population, in the same period.

MORTALITY.—In a former report, the aggregate number of deaths in each state of the Union, during the twelve months prior to June 30th, 1850, was

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given, together with the ratio of deaths to the number living; and some considerations were adduced, showing the most feasible mode of arriving at the law of mortality. The work of condensing this order of statistics has been continued with such discrimination as the nature and value of the returns seemed to require. A great diversity of opinions, it is well known, exists with respect to the salubrity of the Northern and the Southern, the maritime and the inland localities of our country; and on no point, perhaps, could reliable information be more reasonably desired. It is not here proposed to discuss the numerous inquiries which this important branch of statistics suggests, how far it shall confirm existing opinions, or awaken an interest and prepare the way for more full researches. The returns being the first of their kind in the national census, may seem to require some mode of verification; and in this view, the following investigations have been prepared.

The great mass of the white population of this country is chiefly of Teutonic origin, with a large admixture of Celtic. Located in temperate latitudes, with a climate not greatly differing from that of Europe, the presumption naturally arises that the same laws of life would prevail, and to nearly an equal degree, on both sides of the Atlantic. In the absence of any assignable and special source of change, the universal law of self-preservation and protection might be assumed to produce like results upon either continent. As has been truly observed, "a race of men, launched upon the tide of existence, have by virtue of all the conditions, a determined course to run, which will make its own way, and fulfil its own destiny in accordance with a system of laws as unalterable and supreme as those which control the physical universe." Without enumerating the conditions and circumstances of vital development, the practical conclusion arises, that the values of life for different branches of the Teutonic family of nations, in temperate climates, will not greatly differ. And if the ratios of annual mortality, and the expectations of life in America, should substantially agree with the like values in European tables, the general correspondence would afford so many credentials of statistical authority. With respect to the Northern United States, the returns of Massachusetts have been selected for comparison with those of the national census of England. In applying the same mode of verification to the Middle States, the statistics of Maryland have been taken, the table described in last year's report being revised, and male and female lines distinguished. The computations have been executed by Mr. L. W. Meech, whose familiarity with the subject, and scientific qualifications, afford a sufficient guarantee of their accuracy. In contrast with these results, are set the expectations of life in France. The proportion of deaths and the expectations of life at its several periods, may then be compared as follows:—

1.—ANNUAL DEATHS PER CENT, 1850.

Ages.	*Massachusetts.* Males.	*Massachusetts.* Females.	*Maryland.* Males.	*Maryland.* Females.	*England*—1841. Males.	*England*—1841. Females.
0 to 5	7.105	6.052	5.466	4·875	6.638	5.860
5 10	1.168	983	1.041	855	955	922
10 15	452	573	477	606	509	545
15 20	872	831	605	757	718	801
20 30	998	1.170	896	938	949	942
30 40	1.253	1.346	991	1.146	1.080	1.121
40 50	1.513	1.325	1.884	1.249	1.410	1.308
50 60	2.067	1.654	2.433	1.712	2.230	1.938
60 70	3.482	2.960	3.405	3.285	4.232	3.761
70 80	6.767	5.762	8.977	7.221	9.150	8.378
80 90	15.000	13.470	15.157	12.280	19.085	18.085
90 100	35.240	27.540	31.132	23.430	37.039	34.057

2.—EXPECTATION OF LIFE.

Completed Age.	*Massachusetts.* Males. Years.	*Massachusetts.* Females. Years.	*Maryland.* Males. Years.	*Maryland.* Females. Years.	*England.* Males. Years.	*England.* Females. Years.	*France.* Males. Years.	*France.* Females. Years.
0	38.3	40.5	41.8	44.9	40.2	42.2	38.3	40.8
10	48.0	47.2	47.3	49.5	47.1	47.8	47.0	47.4
20	40.1	40.2	39.7	42.1	39.9	40.8	40.0	40.1
30	34.0	35.4	32.9	35.7	33.1	34.3	34.0	33.4
40	27.9	29.8	25.8	29.5	26.6	27.7	27.0	26.6
50	21.6	23.5	20.2	22.7	20.0	21.1	19.9	19.6
60	15.6	17.0	14.4	16.0	13.6	14.4	13.3	13.2
70	10.2	11.3	9.1	10.5	8.5	9.0	8.1	8.1
80	5.9	6.4	6.2	7.0	4.9	5.2	4.8	4.8
90	2.8	3.0	3.9	4.3	2.7	2.8	3.2	3.2

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The expectation of life expresses in years and decimal parts of a year the future length of life to be lived, on an average, after attaining a given age. Thus, on arriving at the age of thirty, the average future lifetime of males, by the Massachusetts table, is thirty-four years, while that of females is thirty-five and four-tenths. The expectations for other ages and columns of the table will readily be understood from mere inspection, though the analytic process of deriving the values requires much collateral research and professional experience. As the year is a natural unit of time, universally familiar, the expectation is doubtless the simplest method that could be devised for exhibiting, at a glance, the changing value of life. Viewed as a whole, the general correspondence, both of the ratios of mortality and the mean length of life, from independent sources, sufficiently verifies their accuracy.

For general estimates, adopting the current classification of the states, the American census exhibits the following ratios of mortality, disregarding the ages at death:

	Annual deaths, per cent.	Ratio to the number living
New-England States	1.55	1 to 64
Middle States, with Ohio	1.39	1 to 72
Central Slave States	1.38	1 to 73
Coast Planting States	1.37	1 to 73
Northwestern States	1.24	1 to 80
United States, total	1.38	1 to 73

It will be seen that the values for the three middle divisions strikingly agree with the average for the United States, as a whole, representing one death to seventy-three living; and this is substantially the ratio stated by Webster for interior towns in 1805:—"The annual deaths," he observed, "amount only to one in seventy or seventy-five of the population." The inquiry might arise, in examining the preceding abstract, why the rate of deaths in the Northwestern States should be so much lower than in the Middle States, and especially New-England. In reply, the mere ratios of mortality are not conclusive upon the question of relative longevity, without taking into account the proportions of young and aged, and the increase of population. Without attempting a full explanation, one source of the difference referred to undoubtedly lies in the youthful character of the population of the new states, and the comparative absence of aged persons, who remain in the older states of the Union. The influence of this emigration will be understood by table 1, where, from the age of five to thirty, the deaths are only from one-half to one per cent., while above the age of fifty-five, the rate of deaths increases from two to thirty-five per cent. Wisconsin, and other Northwestern states, being newly settled by persons chiefly in the prime of life, in the comparative absence of older persons, the per centage of deaths should be less, as it is indeed given by the census. This distinction will tend, in a considerable degree, to reconcile apparent differences in the returns.

From the year 1840 to 1850 the population of the United States was augmented from seventeen millions to twenty-three millions, the increase being six millions in ten years. At the rate of annual mortality above stated, the total deaths, during the same period, were from two and a-half to three millions, being nearly equal to half the residual increase by birth and emigration. Thus, and in various other ways, which space here precludes to specify, statistics of the persistence of life, pointing ultimately to the removal of special causes of mortality, are essentially related to national happiness and advancement.

With respect to the longevity and vital characteristics of slaves and the free colored, the following epitome of life tables is given for three localities, selected from the Northern, Middle and Southern States. The values for New-England are deduced from the general census, embracing 23,020 colored residents; that of Maryland is founded upon the total returns of 90,368 slaves; and that of Louisiana upon the aggregate of 244,786 slaves, and 17,537 free colored, taken collectively. The relative preponderance of female African life is remarkable, while the prevalent opinion of the greater mortality of male slaves in Louisiana is statistically confirmed. The table possesses a higher interest, not only from the definite and comprehensive information contained, but for being the first of the kind for the colored classes in the United States.

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3—EXPECTATION OF LIFE FOR COLORED PERSONS.

Completed Age.	New-England		Maryland		Louisiana	
	Colored male.	Colored female.	Slaves male.	Slaves female.	Colored male.	Colored female.
	Years.	Years.	Years.	Years.	Years.	Years.
0	39.75	42.90	38.47	39.47	28.89	34.60
10	42.92	45.75	45.30	45.00	35.92	40.69
20	35.87	39.09	39.28	39.62	30.48	35.36
30	29.77	34.90	34.41	34.62	26.87	30.66
40	22.83	28.75	27.50	29.00	23.25	25.85
50	18.27	22.11	21.16	23.17	19.13	21.07
60	13.89	17.31	14.32	16.71	14.75	15.27
70	9.42	13.06	8.76	10.57	11.33	10.93
80	6.44	7.87	5.40	6.80	5.38	6.16
90	3.69	4.61	3.80	4.00	3.43	3.34

NATIVITY OF THE POPULATION.—One of the most interesting results of the census is the classification of inhabitants according to the countries of their birth, presented, in an authentic shape, in No. 5 of the accompanying tables.

We are thus enabled to discover, for the first time, of what our nation is composed. The investigations under this head have resulted in showing that of the free inhabitants of the United States, 17,736,792 are natives of its soil, and that 2,210,828 were born in foreign countries, while the nativity of 39,227 could not be determined. It is shown that 1,965,518 of the whole number of foreign-born inhabitants were residents of the free states, and 245,310 of the slave states. It is seen that the persons of foreign birth form 11.06 per cent. of the whole free population. The countries from which have been derived the largest portions of these additions to our population appear in the following statement:—

Natives of Ireland in United States in 1850				961,719
"	Germany	"	"	573,225
"	England	"	"	278,675
"	British America	"	"	147,700
"	Scotland	"	"	70,550
"	France	"	"	54,069
"	Wales	"	"	29,868
"	All other countries	"	"	95,022
Total				2,210,828

The proportion in which the several countries above named have contributed to the aggregate immigrant population, is shown in the subjoined statement:—

	Per Cent.
Ireland	43.04
Germany	25.09
England	12.06
British America	6.68
Scotland	3.17
France	2.44
Wales	1.34
Miscellaneous	4.47

This view of the living immigrant population is important, as serving to correct many extravagant notions which have attained extensive currency.

Another interesting branch of this inquiry, is that which concerns the inter-migrations of our native citizens among the states. The tables presenting a view of this movement will be most useful and valuable, in tracing the progress of different portions of the country. The facts developed will show how far one section has impressed its own characteristics and peculiar customs on others. It is found, that out of 17,736,792 free inhabitants, 4,112,433 have migrated and settled beyond the states of their birth. Three hundred and thirty-five thousand natives of Virginia, equal to twenty-six per cent. of the whole, have found homes outside of her own borders. South Carolina has sent forth one hundred and sixty-three thousand, which is thirty-six per cent. of all the native citizens of that state living in the United States at the date of the census, and the very remarkable proportion of 59 per cent. of those remaining in the state of their nativity, North Carolina has lost 261,575 free inhabitants, equal to 31 per cent., by emigration. Among the Northern states, Vermont and Connecticut have contributed most largely to the settlement of other parts of the country. Their proportion, about 25 per cent. of their native citizens, would exceed, perhaps, that of either of the Southern States already mentioned, were the number of slaves in the latter admitted as an element of the calculations. But the roving tendency of our people is incident to the peculiar condition of their country, and each succeeding census will prove that it is diminishing. When the fertile plains of the West shall have been filled up, and men of scanty means cannot, by a mere change of location, acquire a homestead, the inhabitants of each state will become comparatively stationary, and our countrymen will exhibit the same attachment to the homes of their childhood, the want of which is sometimes cited as an unfavorable trait in our national character.

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DEAF AND DUMB.—No one thing, perhaps, better proves the value of the statistical details connected with our census, than its efficacy in pointing out the number of the unfortunate who come within the above designation, and who are unable to make known their own wants. Not only does it give us the aggregate in each state and in our whole country, but its unpublished details so designate and particularize the deaf mutes in the United States, that those who have been led to make their condition and improvement a special study, have now, for the first time, the means to arrive at the age, sex, color, condition, and wants of each. It will appear from the tabular statement annexed, that the number of white mutes in the United States amounts to 9,091, and the colored to 632, of which 489 are slaves. The census of 1840 returned the number of white deaf and dumb at 6,685, and the colored at 979. The latter amount is clearly erroneous, and was calculated to create an opinion that the deaf mutes were so much more numerous among the colored population of the North than among the whites; in fact, there were, by the census of 1840, colored mutes returned for counties where no colored persons existed. The proportion of deaf mutes among the colored is less than among the white population; and among the slaves the proportion is still smaller. Among the white population there appears to be one deaf mute to each 2,151 persons; of the free colored one to each 3,005; and among the slaves, one to each 6,552.

States	DEAF AND DUMB. WHITE M	WHITE F	COL'D M	COL'D F	SLAVES M	SLAVES F	Aggregate	BLIND. WHITE M	WHITE F	COL'D M	COL'D F	SLAVES M	SLAVES F	Aggregate
Maine	140	89	1	—	—	—	230	115	86	—	—	—	—	201
N. Hampshire	87	76	—	—	—	—	163	69	65	1	1	—	—	136
Vermont	75	68	—	1	—	—	144	89	49	—	—	—	—	138
Massachusetts	204	156	1	3	—	—	364	270	220	4	3	—	—	497
Rhode Island	34	27	2	1	—	—	64	39	22	1	2	—	—	64
Connecticut	211	174	2	2	—	—	389	110	67	12	3	—	—	192
New-York	682	615	5	5	—	—	1,307	738	483	29	22	—	—	1,272
New-Jersey	111	81	7	4	—	—	203	114	72	10	17	—	—	213
Pennsylvania	521	465	14	4	—	—	1,004	443	355	20	11	—	—	829
Delaware	28	26	1	1	—	2	58	10	17	7	12	—	—	46
Maryland	103	92	19	17	15	8	254	96	97	30	41	22	21	307
District of Columbia	7	9	—	2	1	—	19	7	7	5	3	—	1	23
Virginia	325	256	10	8	67	45	711	261	275	56	65	137	202	996
N. Carolina	198	153	1	3	29	23	407	182	205	13	15	57	60	532
S. Carolina	74	55	—	1	11	4	145	91	61	6	8	31	25	222
Georgia	116	95	—	—	20	21	252	128	96	1	4	38	42	309
Florida	8	4	—	—	6	4	22	10	2	—	2	8	4	26
Alabama	96	61	1	—	28	25	211	82	82	1	2	73	68	308
Mississippi	52	29	—	1	13	13	108	75	55	—	1	35	51	217
Louisiana	58	31	3	2	22	12	128	36	31	15	10	60	66	218
Texas	33	16	—	—	6	3	58	36	23	2	1	12	2	76
Arkansas	46	37	—	—	4	2	89	45	30	—	1	3	2	81
Tennessee	195	140	—	2	16	24	377	199	186	4	6	29	44	468
Kentucky	253	232	1	3	28	22	539	249	172	8	11	46	44	530
Ohio	503	436	6	2	—	—	947	370	283	7	5	—	—	665
Michigan	62	59	—	1	—	—	122	72	50	—	—	—	—	122
Indiana	301	213	4	—	—	—	518	189	151	4	5	—	—	349
Illinois	283	190	—	2	—	—	475	156	97	1	3	—	—	257
Missouri	128	116	—	—	10	5	259	104	76	2	1	11	17	211
Iowa	27	24	—	—	—	—	51	28	19	—	—	—	—	47
Wisconsin	42	23	—	—	—	—	65	34	16	—	—	—	—	50
California	5	1	—	—	—	—	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Territories.														
Minnesota	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Oregon	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Utah	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	2
New Mexico	5	9	—	—	—	—	28	70	28	—	—	—	—	98
Total	5,027	4,058	78	65	276	213	9,717	4,519	3,478	289	255	562	649	9,702

The directors of several institutions for the deaf and dumb memorialized Congress, at its last session, to provide for the publication of a small volume, to be prepared by this office, in which should be given the name, age, sex, residence, occupation, &c., of each deaf mute in the United States. Such a work would be of great value to such institutions, but of more consequence to the unfortunate class it would be specially designed to benefit. It would lead to the discovery of hundreds whose abode is unknown, and render available to those unable to

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proclaim their wants the blessings of instruction. In addition to its beneficent effects upon the afflicted, the information thus imparted would furnish many interesting details, useful in a practical point of view. The method of deaf mute instruction was introduced from Europe thirty-five years ago. To study into the improvements effected there within that time, institutions in this country have sent, at different periods, commissioners into different portions of Europe, and the result of their investigations appears to have led to the conclusion, "that in the matter of intellectual instruction we have very little to learn from European schools; while in the very important point of religious instruction they are painfully inferior."

BLIND.—By the preceding table, it will be seen that the number of persons in the United States who are destitute of sight is 9,702, of which 7,997 are white, and 1,705 colored—of which latter 1,211 are slaves. By the census of 1840, the number of white blind persons in the United States was returned at 5,030; the colored do., 1,892. The same error respecting the colored blind existed with the last census, as has been shown to exist respecting the deaf and dumb. We present a table giving the numbers and proportions of the deaf and dumb, blind, insane, and idiotic, among the white, free colored and slaves, respectively. From this table it will be seen that muteness and insanity are more prevalent among the whites, and blindness and idiocy among the colored. Among the white population there appears to be one blind person for each 2,445 persons; among the free colored, one to each 870; and among the slaves, one to each 2,645.

An analysis with respect to native and foreign population, made from the returns, by Harvey P. Peet, LL. D., presents the fact that the blind and insane are much more numerous among our foreign population, which he attributes to "homesickness, change of climate, and the various hardships of an emigrant's lot," which have a strong influence in inducing insanity, and perhaps blindness.

	INSANE.							IDIOTIC.						
	WHITES.		F. CL'D.		SLAVES.			WHITES.		F. CL'D.		SLAVES.		
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	Aggregate.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	Aggregate.
Maine	279	254	3	.	.	.	536	330	225	3	.	.	.	558
New-Hampshire	188	197	.	.	.	.	385	208	140	4	.	.	.	352
Vermont	276	276	.	.	.	.	552	171	109	1	.	.	.	281
Massachusetts	781	848	10	8	.	.	1,647	465	320	4	2	.	.	791
Rhode Island	121	127	3	1	.	.	252	65	39	1	2	.	.	107
Connecticut	218	231	9	4	.	.	462	182	114	3	1	.	.	300
New-York	1,198	1,346	18	18	.	.	2,580	1,032	689	8	10	.	.	1,739
New-Jersey	197	178	3	8	.	.	386	242	168	9	7	.	.	426
Pennsylvania	924	918	16	33	.	.	1,891	799	587	34	28	.	.	1,448
Delaware	29	28	6	7	.	.	70	38	40	7	12	3	1	101
Maryland	226	251	23	29	9	15	553	147	121	32	21	41	31	393
District of Columbia	10	3	4	4	1	.	22	3	4	3	1	.	.	11
Virginia	505	417	19	27	22	36	1,026	660	385	64	56	125	95	1,285
North Carolina	220	242	4	1	9	15	491	338	266	12	20	74	64	774
South Carolina	108	84	1	2	3	6	204	139	103	1	2	26	24	295
Georgia	157	124	1	1	7	16	306	264	212	.	3	59	39	577
Florida	4	2	.	.	1	1	8	23	6	1	.	4	3	37
Alabama	106	102	1	1	18	17	245	219	144	.	.	80	62	505
Mississippi	71	56	.	.	12	10	149	88	53	1	4	36	28	210
Louisiana	83	67	6	9	14	29	208	67	37	5	8	28	28	173
Texas	24	15	.	1	1	.	41	58	39	1	.	7	3	108
Arkansas	38	22	.	.	2	1	63	51	40	2	.	7	2	102
Tennessee	258	195	1	3	8	13	478	439	350	2	2	36	25	854
Kentucky	271	217	1	2	8	8	507	428	321	13	7	48	32	849
Ohio	695	640	11	6	.	.	1,352	769	611	10	9	.	.	1,399
Michigan	71	64	1	.	.	.	136	113	74	3	.	.	.	190
Indiana	300	269	2	8	.	.	579	520	386	7	6	.	.	919
Illinois	137	109	.	3	.	.	249	213	155	2	1	.	.	371
Missouri	140	131	1	1	2	7	262	186	118	.	.	11	18	333
Iowa	19	21	.	.	.	.	40	45	48	.	.	.	.	93
Wisconsin	27	21	.	.	.	.	48	45	31	1	.	.	.	77
California	2	..	.	.	.	.	2	2	1	.	.	.	.	3
Territories.														
Minnesota	..	..	.	.	.	.	...	..	1	.	.	.	.	1
Oregon	4	..	.	.	.	.	4	4	..	.	.	.	.	4
Utah	2	1	.	.	.	.	3	1	1	.	.	.	.	2
New-Mexico	8	3	.	.	.	.	11	22	16	.	.	.	.	38
Total	7,697	7,459	144	177	117	174	15,768	8,276	5,954	234	202	585	455	15,706

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INSANE AND IDIOTIC.—The number of insane persons in the United States is given at 15,768—of whom 15,156 are whites, 321 free colored, and 291 slaves. The number of idiots returned is 15,706, distributed as follows: whites, 14,230; free colored, 436; slaves, 1,040. Total insane and idiotic, 31,474. Total whites, 29,386; total blacks, 2,086. By the census of 1840, these two classes of persons were returned together, (although not generally so understood,) and presented the following numbers: white insane and idiotic, 14,508; colored insane and idiotic, 2,926—total, 17,434. The returns make it appear that, with the white population in the United States there exists one insane person for each 1,290 individuals; among the free colored, one to each 1,338; and among the slaves, one to each 11,010. With respect to idiocy, the white population presents one to each 1,374 persons; the free colored, one to each 985; and among the slaves, one to each 3,080.

Want of time will not permit a sufficiently detailed examination to arrive at the causes which present these unfortunate beings in such greater number than they appeared in 1840. From the manner of taking the census of 1850, they could not be rated higher than their actual numbers; and it follows, therefore, that the returns in 1840 must have been deficient, or that an error occurred in placing the figures in the tables. A more particular examination of both sets of returns will be made, previous to the printing of the seventh census, in which it is hoped the discrepancy will be satisfactorily explained. Throughout our country increased attention is being paid to the amelioration of the condition of this class of our population, a feeling kept in active operation, and made to yield continually practical fruits, mainly through the instrumentality and devoted zeal of one American lady, whose reputation is not limited, and whose influence is not confined to her native country.

EDUCATION.—It was intended to accompany this report with a tabular statement presenting the statistics of education in the United States. We are compelled to defer such table to a future period for want of time to complete it. It may be satisfactory to state that near 4,000,000 youth were receiving instruction in the various educational institutions of the country on the first of June, 1850, or at the rate of one in every five free persons. The teachers number more than 115,000, and the colleges and schools near 100,000. We will endeavor to furnish, in a few weeks, a detailed statement of the condition of the American people as respects education, to which time it will be proper to defer extended remarks.

PAUPERISM.—No state in the Union is without its legal provisions for the protection and support of the indigent population. In many states they receive a care and attention which places them in an enviable condition compared with some of the laboring classes of other countries.

By the table annexed to this report it will be perceived that the whole number of persons who have received the benefit of the public funds of the different states for the relief of indigent persons, amounts to 134,972. Of this number there were 68,538 of foreign birth, and 66,434 Americans, while of the whole number receiving support on the first day of June, there were 36,916 natives, and 13,437 foreigners, making a total of 50,353 persons. Of those termed Americans, many are free persons of color. The entire cost of the support of these individuals during the year has amounted to $2,954,806. This aggregate may seem startling to persons who have paid but little attention to pauper statistics in our own and other countries; and it may be useful, and perhaps not amiss, to compare these facts with results as they are officially developed abroad.

In 1818, about $39,000,000, and during the years 1832, '33, and '34, more than $100,000,000 was expended for the relief and maintenance of the poor of England and Wales, exclusive of the immense expenditure of the poor-law administration in the unions and parishes. In 1842 and '43, the amount of $50,000,000, and during each of the years 1847, '48, and '49, there was expended $28,500,000 in England and Wales.

The entire number of paupers relieved by the public funds in England and Wales for nine years, from 1840 to 1848 inclusive, amounted to 13,193,425, equal to 1,649,178 persons per annum. In 1848, the number relieved was 1,876,541, by which it appears that one person in every eight was a pauper. The average number of those annually relieved, who are

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represented to have been "adult and able-bodied paupers," amounted to more than 477,000; and it is, on British authority, asserted that in 1848 more than 2,000,000 persons in England and Wales were kept from starvation by relief from public and private sources. The total public expenditure for the poor in England and Ireland in 1848, amounted to $42,750,000. Within the past seventeen years, the poor-law fund expended in England and Wales amounted to $426,600,000. This enormous expenditure, accompanied as it is by immense private contributions, falls far short of relieving the wants of the poor of Great Britain. While her population embraces a large number of persons of princely estates, and other classes composed of individuals of every variety of income, combining with it ease, comfort, and elegance, the statistics of the nation prove that the substratum of pauperism or want is of a magnitude alarming to the English moralist and thinker, as well as the statesman, and of an extent and nature harrowing to all. The expenses of the organized benevolent institutions of France amounted, in 1847, to 52,000,000 francs. The number of distressed persons relieved amounted to about 450,000 annually. We have no means of arriving approximately at the number of paupers in France, as the institutions above referred to are confined to the cities and large towns, while among the rural communes, which contain several millions of landed proprietors, there are large numbers of persons in the receipt of public support. It appears, from a report of Mr. Duchatel, Minister of Commerce, that 695,932 persons received public alms at their own houses.

The Netherlands, in 1827, with a population of 6,167,000, contained 11,400 charitable institutions, which contributed to the support of 1,214,055 persons, about one fifth of the entire population.

States.	Whole No. of paupers who received support within the year ending June 1st, 1850 — N'tve.	For'n.	Whole No. of paupers on 1st of June, 1850 — N'tve.	For'n.	Annual cost of support.
Maine	4,553	950	3,269	326	$151,664
N. Hampshire.	2,853	747	1,998	186	157,351
Vermont	2,043	1,641	1,565	314	120,462
Massachusetts	6,530	9,247	4,059	1,490	392,765
Rhode Island.	1,115	1,445	492	204	45,837
Connecticut	1,872	465	1,463	281	95,624
New-York	19,275	40,580	5,755	7,078	817,336
New-Jersey	1,816	576	1,339	239	93,110
Pennsylvania	5,898	5,653	2,654	1,157	232,138
Delaware	569	128	240	33	17,730
Maryland	2,591	1,903	1,681	320	71,668
Dis. of Col.	—	—	—	—	—
Virginia.	4,933	185	4,356	102	151,722
N. Carolina	1,913	18	1,567	13	60,085
S. Carolina	1,313	329	1,113	180	48,337
Georgia	978	58	825	29	27,820
Florida	64	12	58	4	937
Alabama	352	11	306	9	17,589
Mississippi	248	12	245	12	18,132
Louisiana	133	290	76	30	39,806
Texas	7	—	4	—	438
Arkansas	97	8	67	—	6,888
Tennessee	994	11	577	14	30,981
Kentucky	971	155	690	87	57,543
Ohio	1,904	609	1,254	419	95,250
Michigan	649	541	248	181	27,556
Indiana	860	322	446	137	57,560
Illinois	376	411	279	155	45,213
Missouri	1,248	1,729	251	254	53,243
Iowa	100	35	27	17	5,356
Wisconsin	169	497	72	166	14,743
California	—	—	—	—	—
Territories	—	—	—	—	—
Aggregate	66,434	68,538	36,916	13,437	2,954,806

ART. V.—SHALL THE VALLEYS OF THE AMAZON AND THE MISSISSIPPI RECIPROCATE TRADE?

THE subject of South American trade, and especially that of the great empire of the Amazon, has been pressed by us in the Review, through the able pen of Lieut. Maury and others, with zeal and earnestness for many months past, and now that Congress is in session, we cannot allow the matter to flag. The following contribution presents many additional views which are new and striking, and deserving of serious consideration:

We now come to consider the means and modes by which the resources of this great Amazonian water-shed are to be developed, and the measures and steps which the policy of commerce suggests for securing to the world the free navigation of the Amazon.

The triumphs of commerce are peaceful; its achievements are seen in the spreading of civilization, in the march of civil and religious freedom, and in the dispensation of thrift, prosperity, and wealth among nations, as well as to individuals.

From the statements which I have already made, all must admit that the

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valley of the Amazon is not only a great country, but it is a glorious wilderness and waste which, under the improvement and progress of the age, would soon be made to "blossom as the rose." We have, therefore, but to let loose upon it the engines of commerce—the steamer, the emigrant, the printing-press, the axe and the plow—and it will teem with life.

There is a line of steamers from England to Rio. The French are getting up a line, and the stock has been taken in it, from Marseilles to Rio. Brazil has a line from the mouth of the Rio de la Plata, via Rio, to the mouth of the Amazon. The mouth of the Amazon is half way between Norfolk and Rio. I petitioned Congress, at its last session, for the establishment of a line of mail-steamers from some one of our southern ports to connect with the Brazilian line at Para, and thus put our merchants in direct steamship communication with Rio, Buenos Ayres and Montevideo, and so draw us closer to the Amazon.

The committee to whom the subject was referred reported in favor of it, and brought in a bill for its accomplishment. It was, however, not acted upon.

But since that, events have occurred which make this line from the south still more important and necessary. The tyrant Rosas has been expelled from the continent; the navigation of the Rio de la Plata and some of its noblest tributaries have been opened and made free to the world. This government, with a most praiseworthy zeal, is fitting out a naval expedition to explore those streams, and to make known their navigability and the commercial resources of the countries drained by them, that our merchants may know how to send, what to sell, and what to buy there.

Brazil has contracted for two lines of steamers on the Amazon, from its mouth almost up to its sources. These Amazonian lines are to run—one monthly between Para and Barra, at the mouth of the Rio Negro, a distance of nine hundred miles; the other, connecting with this at Barra, is to ply between that city and Nauta, in Peru, a distance of near three thousand miles from the sea. "Poling up the Mississippi" would, in comparison to the means at present employed for navigating the waters of the Amazon and La Plata, be considered rapid traveling. Here, therefore, is the commencement of a new era in the business and the commerce of those two river-basins; and the first merchant-steamer, as she plows up those majestic streams with her rich cargo of foreign merchandise, will be the signal for a revolution in the trade and traffic which has been carried on there.

Three millions of dollars' worth of produce now comes down the Amazon to Para.

"The Peruvian portion of the Upper Amazon" where this line of steamers is to go, "is," said Castelnau, who was then on his way home, after traveling through the fairest parts of South America, "the most beautiful country in the world; its fertility is proverbial." There is found the famous silk tree, which produces a staple like cotton to the eye, but silk to the touch. There the labor of one man is worth but two and a half yards of our coarse cotton stuff the month—so abundant are the fruits of the earth, so scarce the fabrics of the shop and loom, and so far has that country been removed from the influences of commerce. It is now just about to be brought within them.

But what are the opportunities which Americans will have for getting a fair share of this new business to which the free navigation of the La Plata and the introduction of steam upon the Amazon will give rise? I reply, very small, unless this southern line of steamers to the Amazon be established; otherwise all the intelligence from Brazil and the La Plata, all the advices concerning the markets, will go direct to England and to France by their steamers; and then, after the merchants there shall have had some ten days or two weeks the start of their American competitors in taking advantage of that intelligence, it will arrive here in the United States by the Cunard or Collins line of steamers from Liverpool.

Now and then an American clipper, happening at the mouth of the river, or in the offing at Rio, at the night time, may chance to bring intelligence to the United States sooner than it can go to Europe and then come over by steamer. But that is uncertain.

The free navigation of the Rio de la Plata is an achievement, and commerce

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is chiefly indebted to Brazil for it. Honor to Brazil, therefore. It is a gem in the crown of the emperor, which, if it be tarnished not, will make his reign illustrious.

Rosas held the mouth of the river La Plata; Brazil, Banda-Oriental, Paraguay, and Bolivia, (all independent sovereignties,) owned navigable water-courses which emptied into it; but Rosas would not allow any of these powers to follow those waters through his part of the river to the sea. Brazil made war with him, drove him out of the country, and the first-fruits of the victory the commercial world is about to receive, is the free navigation of those noble streams.

With a quarrel more just than that wicked one about opium, Brazil, in her triumph, followed the generous example of England in opening the ports of China, without any claim to exclusive privileges.

Brazil has not opened the ports of so populous a country as China, but she has opened the water-courses of one with which commerce will in a few years be more valuable than it is with China.

These arrangements about the La Plata navigation are not completed. They are thought to be in a fair way of adjustment; and, therefore, in giving honor to whom honor is due, I give it to the Emperor of Brazil, upon the supposition that no untoward thing will occur to thwart the measure.

But the commercial world has been sparing of its commendations of Brazil for her seeming liberality with regard to the free navigation of the La Plata. They say—and have, alas! but too much reason for saying—that there was no generosity, no liberality, no sign of any fairness whatever, in the course of Brazil with regard to the navigation of the La Plata. Bolivia, Paraguay, and Banda-Oriental, they say, had each as much right as Brazil to claim the free use of the La Plata for getting to sea with their merchandise; and if, upon the fall of Rosas, Brazil had then attempted to extort from Buenos Ayres any exclusive privilege in the use of those waters, she knew that not only would these republics—her next-door neighbors—all have turned against her, but that the three great commercial nations of the north would have stepped in to prevent any such exclusive and selfish appropriation of Nature's highway.

As a proof that Brazil was not actuated by any of those really enlarged and liberal views which it is the policy of commerce to carry out, I point to the Amazon. There Don Pedro is the Rosas. He holds the mouth of the Amazon; he shuts it up. Five sovereign and independent nations own its headwaters, and all of them have provinces and people upon the banks of its navigable tributaries; but not one of them is allowed to follow the course of these navigable streams through Brazilian waters to the sea.

Justice, the policy of commerce, the sentiment of the age, all the principles of national law and the rights of people, are in favor of the free use of that river by those five Spanish republics: and it cannot be said that Brazil acted from principle in the case of the La Plata until she makes, of her own accord, the navigation of the Amazon free.

Formerly there was a Rosas who threatened to stand at the mouth of our Mississippi, and we, who then owned the headwaters only, claimed, and were ready to assert with the sword, our right to follow them, and to use them for commerce and navigation, until they mingled with and were lost in the sea.

It has now not been quite four years ago since this subject of the free navigation of the La Plata and the Amazon was brought to the attention of this government.

The proposition was, that we should offer to Brazil our friendly mediation with Rosas, and use our kind offices to induce him to make free the navigation of the La Plata, and so end the war.

It was proposed, also, that we should treat with Bolivia, Peru, Ecuador, New Grenada, and Venezuela, for ports of entry to foreign vessels and commerce up their navigable tributaries of the Amazon, and thus turn upon Brazil with the same arguments for the free navigation of the Amazon that Brazil stood ready to urge in favor of her right to navigate the La Plata.

Brazil got wind of this. She found out that such a thing as the free navigation of the Amazon began to form the subject of conversation in commercial and political circles here, and she immediately took the most active steps to render of no avail any attempt on our part having for its object the free navigation of the Amazon.

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She redoubled her energies in the war against Rosas, and she dispatched in hot haste Ministers Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Peru, to Bolivia, to Ecuador, and New Grenada, and Venezuela, to treat with each of those five Spanish-American Republics for the *exclusive* right to navigate their Amazonian tributaries.

For the Portuguese, who had owned the Amazon for ages, who had not had the power to make an impression upon its forests, nor to launch a steamer upon its bosom, to go and talk to the Bolivians and others about sending steamers away up the main trunk of the Amazon, to paddle up and down the republican spring-branches of the Spanish Americans, was truly a diplomatic phenomenon! "You have an Athens, embellish that," should have been their reply to Brazil.

I quote from the Rio correspondent of the "Observator"—a Brazilian newspaper—of May last. This correspondent appears to be in the secrets of the government, and no doubt spoke the sentiments of that jealous cabinet:

"The navigation of the Amazon goes on swimmingly: the government of Peru, by the convention of the 23d of last October, made with our new minister, Duarte da Ponte Ribeiro, obliges itself to assist the first enterprise established upon the Amazon with a sum never less than $20,000.

"The government has named in quality of resident minister, and for an extraordinary mission near the governments of the republics of Venezuela, Ecuador, and New Grenada, our minister to Bolivia, Miguel Maria Lisboa. The object of this mission is a treaty with those republics for the navigation of the Amazon, because, as I think, it is feared that the United States will hasten to arrange one for the navigation of some of the tributaries of the Amazon, and thus judge themselves authorized to enter the Amazon from without, as the journals of New-York and New-Orleans already propose. We have been careless in this matter, and must now hurry about it.

"This nation of pirates, like those of their race, wish to displace all the people of America who are not Anglo-Saxons."

Thus the objects of Da Ponte's mission to Peru and Bolivia, and of Lisboa's to Venezuela, New Grenada, and Ecuador, are clearly set forth.

They were to frustrate any attempts at treaty the commercial nations might be disposed to make with these republics touching river navigation, and to seal up tighter than ever the great arteries of those countries, and thus perpetuate the stagnation and death that have for three hundred years reigned in the great Amazonian water-shed.

Brazil seemed already to have forgotten that what was right on the south side of the Tropic of Capricorn must be right also under the Equator; for the same arguments that apply to the free navigation of the La Plata apply also to the free navigation of the Amazon.

Peru fell into the trap, and made the required treaty; but the more sagacious statesmen of Bolivia got wind of the design, and not only refused to treat with Brazil upon the subject, but the enlightened President of that republic proposes to establish upon the Amazonian tributaries of Bolivia free ports to all the world.

"*Como los Brazileros,*" says a gentleman of Bolivia, writing as to this pretension of Brazil to steamboat navigation upon the rivers of Bolivia, "*pretenden el privilejio, y el Presidente Belzu, es bastante capas para conocer lo que le conviene a Bolivia, el se ha negado a dar dicha concesion, y espera qui los Estados Unidos sevan los primeros en descubrier aquellos rejiones.*"*

Moreover, as the good genius of Amazonia and free navigation would have it, neither the Brazilian nor the Peruvian Plenipotentiary appeared to have a sufficient knowledge of the subject of which the two were treating. They evidently knew very little of the navigability of those waters, the monopoly of which they aimed to secure.

This treaty was secretly negotiated in Lima, last October twelve months, and was ratified in Rio two or three months ago only. I have a manuscript copy of it before me. Its title is, "A treaty of fluvial commerce and navigation and of boundary between the republics of Peru and the Empire of Brazil."

* "As the Brazilians claim the privilege, and as President Belzu understands the interests of Bolivia, in the matter, he has refused to make any such concessions, and hopes the United States will be the first to explore those regions."

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The question of boundary was settled in two words: "*Uti possidetis.*"

I quote with regard to the river steamboat navigation:

"ARTICLE FIRST.—The republic of Peru and his Majesty the Emperor of Brazil, desiring to encourage, respectively, the navigation of the river Amazon and its confluents by steamboats, which, by ensuring the exportation of the immense products of those vast regions, may contribute to increase the number of the inhabitants and civilize the savage tribes, agree that the merchandise, produce, and craft passing from Peru to Brazil, or from Brazil to Peru, across the frontier of both states, shall be exempt from all duty, imposts, or sale duty (alcabala) whatsoever, to which the same products are not subject in the territory where produced; to which they shall be wholly assimilated.

"ARTICLE SECOND.—The high contracting parties being aware of the great expense attending the establishment of steam navigation, and that it will not yield a profit during the first years to the shareholders of the company destined to navigate the Amazon from its source to the banks (litoral) in Peru —which should belong exclusively to the respective states—agree to give to the first company which shall be formed a sum of money during five years in aid of its operations; which sum shall not be less than twenty thousand dollars annually for each of the high contracting parties, either of whom may increase the said amount, if it suits its particular interests, without the other party being thereby obliged to contribute in the same ratio.

"The conditions to which the shareholders are to be subject, in consideration of the advantages conceded to them, shall be declared in separate articles.

"The other conterminous states, which, adopting the same principles, may desire to take part in the enterprise upon the same conditions, shall likewise contribute a certain pecuniary quota to it."

"SEPARATE ARTICLES.

"For the better understanding of Article second of the convention signed this day, the high contracting parties have further agreed to the following articles:

"ARTICLE FIRST.—The shareholders of the steam navigation mentioned in the second article of the convention concluded on this date, shall be bound to the following conditions:

"1st. That steamboats shall make three voyages the first year, four in the second, and at least six voyages in the third, fourth and fifth.

"When, owing to circumstances arising from the great distance, obstruction of the river, making experiments connected with its navigation, want of combustibles, or other weighty reasons, it may be impossible to make that number of voyages, the shareholders shall receive only five thousand dollars for every voyage that the boats make during the two first years, and three thousand dollars for every one made during the third, fourth and fifth.

"2d. They shall convey, free of charge, the mail-bags of the government and of the post-office, and deliver them at the places on the banks as they pass along, until the end of the voyage.

"3d. They shall also convey every voyage, passage free, four civil, military, or ecclesiastical officers in the service of each government; the luggage of these persons in quantity equal to that of other passengers, and the packages that each government may in particular wish to send, provided they do not exceed two tons.

"4th. They shall be obliged to take on board or in tow the troops, ammunition and effects, that the two governments may wish to send, receiving therefor an equitable remuneration—the amount of which shall be fixed as soon as it shall be ascertained what is the necessary cost of performing said service.

"5th. The company shall arrange with both governments touching the respective points on the river Amazon or Maranon to which the steamboats shall navigate, and concerning the ports at which they are to touch; and it shall be subject to the fiscal and police regulations, notwithstanding their being liberated from imposts of every kind.

"ARTICLE SECOND.—Each government shall grant to the company the propriety of one-fourth part of a league square, at the places in which it may be necessary to establish a depot for combustibles, at any point not belonging to private persons; but the title to the same

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shall be forfeited, unless the conditions above mentioned be complied with during the five years. It shall be lawful to cut wood for fuel on unoccupied lands, and to open and work coal mines."

Under this treaty, Brazil has entered into an agreement with Irineo Evangelista de Souza to introduce the river steamer upon the Amazon.

This contract was entered into on the 30th day of August last, and is one of the most odious monopolies that ever were inflicted upon free trade, or that now retards the progress of any country. A stringent monopoly of steamboat trade and travel on the Amazon for thirty years! The preamble to this contract states, that, in order to enable this Souza to form a company for the establishment of steam navigation upon the Amazon, the exclusive right for thirty years to the steamboat trade, travel, and navigation up and down that river, has been granted to him upon certain conditions, the principal of which are these:

1st. The capital of the company shall never be less than $600,000, (1,200,000, $000.)

2d. There shall be two lines; one from Para, at the mouth of the Amazon, touching at the intermediate places, to Barra, at the mouth of the Rio Negro; the second, from Barra, touching as aforesaid, to Nauta, at the mouth of the Ucayali, in Peru.

3d. To the first line an annual subsidy of $80,000 (160,000 $000) is to be paid for the first fifteen years; and to the second line is to be paid the $20,000 which, by the "treaty of fluvial navigation and commerce," of which I have spoken, Peru obligated herself to pay.

4th. At the commencement, the first line is to make one round trip a month; the second, three a year.

The company, on the other hand, obligates itself to do certain things, and among these is to establish on the Amazon and its tributaries sixty colonies, which shall consist of Indians or emigrants from such nations as the crown may designate.

The first thing in this treaty of "fluvial commerce and navigation" between Peru and Brazil that strikes one, is the want of sagacity on the part of its negotiators, and the marvelous degree of infatuation by which Peru fell into the flimsy net that was so unskilfully spread before her.

When Peru was invited to treat upon this subject, and was told that Brazil wanted to introduce the river steamer upon Peruvian waters, there was, right at the mouth of the Amazon, the Tocantins, a most magnificent stream. It crosses more parallels of latitude than our Mississippi or Missouri; it lies wholly within Brazilian territory; the banks of its upper tributaries are enlivened with towns and villages, and peopled with 125,000 subjects of Brazil; it takes its rise in the very heart of the empire; and from the emperor's palace at Rio to the headwaters of this noble river the distance is not five hundred miles; and yet, with all the enterprise of Brazil, she had not been able to put, or to muster energy enough to make the attempt to put, a single steamer upon this river. It was a little surprising, then, that the suspicions of Peru were not excited; for there was something strange to see this Brazilian envoy passing by the mouth of the noble Tocantins at home, which his own countrymen, with their dug-outs and rude crafts, can ascend only at the rate of seven miles a day. It was strange, I say, to see this envoy leaving the rivers in his own country in such a condition, and traveling thousands of miles up the Amazon to propose to Peru to send Brazilian steamers to navigate among the Andes, her tributaries of the Amazon.

Besides this, there are the Chingu and the Tapajos, with a dozen other noble streams lying wholly within Brazilian territory. Some of them come from "mountains of diamonds," and gold is in the beds of all of them. They are all strangers to the steamboat. Their sources are so completely lost in the unknown regions of the vast interior of Brazil, that we are far better acquainted with the geography of the moon than we are with that of these rivers; and yet, seeing that, and how that government had neglected them all, Peru could still be induced to listen to its shallow propositions.

Nay, there is the beautiful river of San Francisco, which empties directly into the sea, and the headwaters of which are just behind the first range of hills in the rear of the capital of the empire. Without having had the energy to introduce the steamboat even upon the waters of this river, the Chevalier Da Ponte is sent off upon this shallow mis-

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sion about the headwaters of the Amazon, which by fatuity the diplomatists of Peru, it seems, could not fathom.

This attempt of Brazil to negotiate with those five Amazonian republics can be considered in no other light than an attempt to stop the progress of civilization; for, to close the Amazon to commerce and the steamboat, is to shut out from that benighted country, which it drains, the lights of civilization, the blessings of Christianity, and all the elements of human happiness!

But the treaty! The Brazilian minister, I am told, did not hesitate privately to advance the sentiment, when in Lima, that it was not the policy of Brazil to treat with nations more powerful than herself; that in the interpretation of treaties the stronger power always enforced its own construction, and the weaker as invariably went to the wall.

At any rate, I shall show how faithfully Brazil has acted up to this policy in the case of this treaty with Peru. By it each of the contracting parties pledged itself to give annually a sum not less than $20,000 for the introduction of the steamboat upon the waters of the Amazon; and what has been the result? Why, this: Brazil, as we have seen by the Souza contract, has taken this $20,000 of Peruvian money and given it to one of her own subjects to establish a line of steamers under her own flag from the mouth of the Rio Negro to Nauta—that is, it is to run about 1,500 miles through Brazilian territory, and when it gets a few miles into Peru to stop short. But still Peru must pay the piper. When this line reaches the mouth of the Rio Negro it is to feed there with its freights another line under the Brazilian flag to Para.

Thus Peru, to get about 250 miles of her thousands of miles of navigable waters navigated by steam, is made to pay Brazilian bottoms and subjects for navigating 1,500 miles of Brazilian waters!

I have no pleasure in exposing this miserable trickery of the court of Brazil. But she has arrayed herself against the improvements and the progress of the age, and she has attempted by intrigue so to shape the course of events, that she might lock up and seal with the seal of ignorance and superstition, and savage barbarity, the finest portions of the earth.

Science, commerce, and the wants of mankind, are beginning to call loudly for admittance there; and up the Amazon they must and will go, for when they call, the world is right apt to heed.

The object of Brazil, in negotiating this treaty with Peru, was, as we have seen by the Rio correspondent of the "Observator," already quoted, to exclude "this nation of pirates," as we are there styled, from these water-courses.

But the "high contracting parties," as it often happens to the wicked, fell themselves into the net which they had spread for other feet; for they seem not to have recollected the provisions of a treaty which Randolph Clay, our most skilful and accomplished representative in Lima, had just negotiated with Peru.

Only three months before the date of this fluvial treaty, that excellent diplomatist had negotiated in Lima a "treaty of friendship, commerce and navigation, with Peru."

By the 10th article of that treaty it is set forth that—

"The Republic of Peru, desiring to increase the intercourse along its coasts, by means of steam navigation, hereby engages to accord to any citizen or citizens of the United States, who may establish a line of steam vessels, to navigate regularly between the different ports of entry within the Peruvian territories, the same privileges of taking in and landing freight, entering the by-ports, for the purpose of receiving and landing passengers and their baggage, specie and bullion, carrying the public mails, establishing depots for coal, erecting the necessary machine and workshops for repairing and refitting the steam vessels, and all other favors enjoyed by any other association or company whatsoever.

"It is furthermore understood between the high contracting parties, that the steam vessels of either shall not be subject in the ports of the other party to any duties of tonnage, harbor, or other similar duties whatsoever, than those that are or may be paid by any other association or company."

By the 3d article it is agreed that—

"The two high contracting parties hereby bind and engage themselves not to grant *any favor, privilege*, or immunity whatever, in matters of commerce and navigation, to *other nations* which

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shall *not be also immediately extended to the citizens of the other contracting party.* who shall enjoy the same gratuitously, if the concession shall have been gratuitous, or, on giving a compensation, as nearly as possible of proportionate value and effect, to be adjusted by mutual agreement if the concession shall have been conditional."

And finally, by the 2d article, it is declared that—

"The United States of America and the Republic of Peru mutually agree that there shall be reciprocal liberty of commerce and navigation between their respective territories and citizens; the citizens of either republic may frequent with their vessels all *the coasts, ports* and *places*, of the other, wherever (enque) *foreign* commerce is permitted, and reside in all parts of the territory of either, and occupy dwellings and warehouses; and everything belonging thereto shall be respected, and shall not be subjected to any arbitrary visit or search.

"The said citizens shall have full liberty to trade in all parts of the territories of either, according to the rules established by the respective regulations of commerce, in all kinds of goods, merchandise, manufactures and produce, not prohibited to all, and to open retail stores and shops, under the same municipal and police regulations as native citizens."

Thus Brazil, instead of treating us *out* of the Amazon, has treated us into it; for, by solemn stipulations with Peru, *American citizens had already the right to frequent with their vessels* all the coasts, ports and places, in Peru, wherever foreign commerce is or may be permitted.

And, furthermore, in this treaty Peru binds and engages herself not to grant any "favor, privilege or immunity, whatever, in matters of commerce and navigation, to other nations, which shall not be also *immediately extended* to the citizens of the" United States.

Thus, therefore, this treaty of "fluvial navigation and commerce" between Peru and Brazil has let us into the Amazon, *so far as Peru can let us in;* for we have the same right to trade upon her Amazonian tributaries that Brazil has.

Moreover, Lieut. Herndon informs me that the vessels of Brazil, that go poling about the Amazon and its Spanish-American tributaries, are in the habit of visiting all places and ports in these republics, without let or hindrance. They gather the products of the forests and the staples of the country *ad libitum;* in short, that the Brazilians enjoy there a perfect free trade, there not being a custom-house or an excise officer in the whole valley, or a single restraint upon perfect freedom of trade, until you get down into Brazil.

We have, therefore, in the Amazonian provinces, and upon the Amazonian waters of Peru, all the rights and privileges that Brazil has, IF WE CAN GET THERE.

Not only so: Peru, in 1850, published a decree which made her Amazonian provinces for awhile the common property of the world.

When that gold-exploring party of which I have already spoken returned with their seven hundred pounds' weight of gold, washed in gourds from the streams of this water-shed, the Ministers of Peru wrote letters and had them published, inviting all the world, in consequence, as they said, of these discoveries of the ore and washings of gold in her province of Carabaya, to come and take advantage of them, and make use of the natural productions of those regions; and the world was assured that the emigrants of all nations going there should have all civil and religious liberty.

But this invitation fell still-born, because the Andes, with their snow-capped summits, and the long, boisterous, and dangerous passage of Cape Horn, stood up on one hand as a barrier to keep out the immigrant by the way of the shores of the Pacific, and on the other hand Brazil closed up the Amazon against his passage up from the Atlantic ocean.

Hence arises the question of the day —that of the free navigation of the Amazon.

The question as to the free use for navigation of a river which runs through the dominions of more than one Power, is a familiar one to statesmen. It has been settled upon the everlasting principles of right long ago, and cannot now admit of dispute.

In Europe the navigation of the Rhine is conceded as a right in common to those to whom its waters belong. In North America it is a right—this free use of waters that are common property—which involves principles very dear to

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the people. The Mississippi is an illustration of this fact; for the people do not forget that the mouth of that river was once in foreign hands that threatened to shut it up to us of the great West when we were owners of its head navigable waters only, and not of its mouth.

It is a right which, in the case of Texas, we practically conceded to her citizens with regard to the Red river without the asking, when she was an independent republic.

It is a right which the United States have always claimed with regard to the St. Lawrence, but which we have never thought worth a contention, because for all, or rather for a very great many, of the practical purposes of life our people have brought the commercial mouth of the St. Lawrence down by rail-road and canal from the straits of Belle Isle, and placed it at Sandy Hook.

Canadian merchants and English subjects pay tolls to our rail-roads and canals for taking their produce to New-York and a market. We therefore do not care to see the St. Lawrence opened.

In South America it is a right which Brazil has asserted on the La Plata, even to the "*ultima ratio*," when she was one of the Upper countries.

The United States, therefore, are committed to this principle; and Brazil is committed to it.

We have contended for it here on the north side of the Tropic of Cancer; Brazil has fought for it under Capricorn; and we must both stand up for it together under the Equator.

But, in the case with us on this side of the line, there were never more than two nations concerned in the navigation of a single water-course. Here in South America there are a dozen; and this makes the case so much the stronger in favor of a liberal policy on all sides with regard to this question.

In the case of the Rio de la Plata, the up-countries which Rosas cut off from the sea were the Banda-Oriental, Brazil, Paraguay, and Bolivia, not to mention Uruguay, Corrientes, Entre-Rios, Sante Fe, and some half a dozen other states, which were in such an anomalous condition that one knew not whether to class them as nations or anarchies.

In the case of the Amazon, there are five different republics in the up-country, with Brazil at the mouth of the river; not one of these five has the means or the power to force her way down, and Brazil will not let them come down peaceably. The Amazon, therefore, presents a question for which, as there is no river-basin equal to it, there is no precedent.

We have the right from Peru to navigate her tributaries, *if we can get to them.* Bolivia is talking of making hers as free to all as is the sea. Ecuador is inclined to do the same; and both New-Grenada and Venezuela will, no doubt, follow suit the moment they are invited so to do.

We have heard of the question before as to "free goods and free bottoms." But here the question is, whether "free ports make free rivers."

Suppose these five Spanish-American republics should all proclaim one or more of their river towns upon the Amazon free ports to the commerce of the world; and suppose that Brazil, instead of owning two thousand miles or more of this river, after it passes the borders of these republics, owned only two miles, would any one pretend that Brazil, in such a case, would have the right to control the navigation of the whole river and its valley, because its mouth happened to pass through two miles of her territory just before entering the sea?

The doctrine that concedes to any one nation the arbitrary right to shut out other nations from the common highway of the world, is monstrous.

The arbitrary right even to shut one of the citizens of this nation from the public highways is not possessed by any of our governors. And if his neighbors *must* allow him free passage through their own lands to the common market-way, with how much more force does this humane principle of right apply to nations, and their right to follow, through neighboring territory, the great thoroughfares which nature has constructed to lead from the interior of the land out upon the broad ocean, the great highway of the world?

Brazil has no more right, in consequence of her two thousand miles of Amazon between these people and the sea, to shut them up and out from the highways of commerce than she would in the supposed case of two miles.

The policy of the United States is the "policy of commerce," and we do not wish ever to be on any terms with Brazil but those of peace and good-will. We buy now half of all her coffee, and

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coffee is her great staple. She is a good customer of ours too, and we value highly our present friendly relations with her; but, as highly as we value them, we value still more the everlasting principles of right.

We want nothing exclusive up the Amazon; but we are nearer to the Amazon, or rather to the mouth of it than any other nation, not even excepting Brazil herself, if we count the distance in *time*, and measure from Rio de Janeiro, and from New-York or New-Orleans as the centres of the two countries. And, therefore, it may well be imagined that this miserable policy by which Brazil has kept shut up, and is continuing to keep shut up, from man's—from Christian, civilized, enlightened man's—use the fairest portion of God's earth, would be considered by the American people as a nuisance, not to say an outrage.

China wants to trade with us, but Japan stands by the way-side, and shuts herself up and out of the world. She is not in the fellowship of nations, and we send a fleet there to remind her that she cannot be in this world and live out of it at one and the same time. God has put the land she occupies on this earth, and she cannot take it away by her policy.

The five Spanish-American republics want to trade up and down the Amazon; but Brazil, worse than Japan on the way-side, stands right in *the doorway*, and says, "Nay, I will neither use the Amazon myself nor permit others to use it. That great up-country shall remain a social and a commercial blank."

Is it the policy of the great commercial nations to permit that? No; it is no more their policy than a state of war, and not of peace, is their policy.

In fine, the people of this country cannot look with indifference at the policy Brazil has pursued, and seems disposed to continue to pursue, with regard to the Amazon.

She and her rulers have had it for three hundred years, and the first practical step towards subduing it and developing its resources has yet to be taken.

Under these circumstances, it appears to me that Brazil, if she persist in her dog-in-the-manger policy with regard to the Amazon and the countries drained by it, runs some risk of getting up a discussion among the enlightened and commercial nations as to what her rights are to the Amazon, and whether they are not in danger of being forfeited by non-usage.

This, certainly, is the question of the day. The problem of the age is that of the free navigation of the Amazon, and the settlement of the Atlantic slopes of South America.

It is to stand out in after times, and among all the great things which this generation has already accomplished, as *the* achievement in its way of the nineteenth century. But it is not to be worked out by the hand of violence or the strong arm of power. It is for science, with its lights; diplomacy, with its skill; commerce, with its influences; and peace, with its blessings, to bring about such a great result as would be the free navigation of the Amazon—the settlement and cultivation of the great Atlantic slopes of South America.

With many thanks, Mr. Editor, for lending so many columns of your valuable magazine to me and this subject, I conclude,

Very truly yours, INCA.

ART. VI.—RAIL-ROAD ADMINISTRATION AT THE SOUTH.

THE CIVIL ENGINEER.

[THE following paper, from the pen of an experienced engineer, we recommend to the attention of our Boards of Internal Improvement, Rail-road Presidents, Directors, Stock-holders, etc. It embraces many sound and salutary truths, and should be carefully read and remembered.]

With the liberal minds of the South, next in importance to the cotton market, comes the consideration of rail-roads. While their commercial and social bearings have been discussed over and again, to the weariness of the reading public, little or no attention seems to have been drawn to subjects connected with their general construction and operation and millions are being invested

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almost daily by new states or communities which must be somewhat in the dark on these points, without one ray of experience vouchsafed them by their more advanced neighbors. That to possess correct general views of these two departments, is of immense importance to the confiding stockholder, cannot be questioned.

The civil engineer in charge of a rail-road, or more properly the chief engineer, is so completely identified with its construction and operation, so responsible for its faults, and so worthy of its awards of merit, that to understand his office, the limit of his rights, and the service he owes a company, is to possess a safeguard against abuses of the most dangerous character. The duties of this officer should at least be as familiar as those of the bricklayer or carpenter, not of course in detail, but in that degree which will, with most trades, put a stop to imposition; and when we contrast the prescribed sphere of the journeyman with the high prerogatives of the engineer, the dangers of ignorance are fearful. But so it is, that, what with the comparative fewness of members of this profession, and a kind of mysticism that seems to have gathered around it, there is a deplorable ignorance in the minds of intelligent commercial men amongst us, as regards the value, the duties and the responsibilities of the engineer.

At a time like the present, when rail-roads are spreading abroad with amazing energy and dispatch, and a great call is made for engineers, it would be strange if some designing men, taking advantage of this, did not succeed in blinding the public eye still further to their own abuses and impositions under the name of chief engineers. Nor is this mere speculation; it has been the case in some of our states, and the evil is now far from abating. The writer is familiar with the histories of several rail-road companies in our midst, which betray a long series of fatal mistakes once blindly consented to on the word of incompetent engineers, who, dishonest and mischievous, made easy dupes of their boards. Roads have been found dropping to pieces three years after construction—accounts left in endless confusion—and, at this moment, an observer standing aloof from the excitement of scheming, building, and equipping the roads of the South and Southwest, sees companies unguardedly confiding to the judgment of ignorant, inexperienced, and cunning men, some of them mere stripling schoolboys at a profession they never can adorn. These, unless cornered by difficulties, and made to betray their pretences, will sow the seeds of ruin and disaster in a company's affairs.

It is a matter of deep mortification and sincere regret with those who desire to elevate the profession to a standard worthy of our great works, that this spirit of empiricism has begun to show itself so boldly and dangerously: they desire to present to the intelligent minds connected with rail-roads in our section, the extreme danger to themselves and the public at large, threatened by a continuance of this state of things; to awaken among the rail-road companies every day forming in our midst the proper spirit of caution in appointing their chief engineers; to show what should be the standard of honest and able engineering, and how far short of this some men do come; to bring out the causes and effects of this deterioration, and to suggest the method of reform.

It would not be to our purpose here to enter into detail with regard to the amount of scientific attainment, natural ability, or experience, which should be expected of our chief engineers; this, a professional question, would not interest or benefit the public mind, which, to form a just view of the subject, need not be told what an engineer should know, but what he should do: the public has to deal only with his fruits of study and experience, not with the studies themselves. However, in passing, it might be remarked that a profession so eminently responsible should be supposed to attract men of no ordinary talent, to involve the highest degree of general scientific knowledge, and, since it is of all others a practical pursuit, to require long years of experience before its members venture to occupy the master's seat.

The first step with most companies, after organizing, is the election of an engineer; for they feel themselves not only unable to carry on the process of building, but they need some one to suggest each move in the execution of their complicated scheme, and to whom they may look for thorough satisfaction on all questions of construction, equipment, and operation; in fine, a man whom they may admire for his science

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and respect for his dignity. If they select one of the right stamp they will soon discover his value to be incalculable. He will enter office with no swagger or grimace, but with a quiet consciousness of having weighty responsibilities before him. If his position seems not to be understood by the board, he at once sets about explaining it, and dreading the effects of an apparent servility at the start, he speaks out boldly for his own rights and the uninterrupted discharge of his own duties. He will let it be known that, if dissatisfied, the remedy of the board must be dismissal, not interference; and this maxim, if carried out, will free both parties from endless confusion and ill feeling; if not, these will be inevitable. With reference to the prominent director of the company, or the officer generally styled with us the president of the board, the engineer's relations must be clearly understood before anything can be done with safety. Much has happened in the history of our roads to create the impression that these relations must ever be very delicately and obscurely hinted at, that the two officers necessarily interfere with each other, and that no line of distinction in responsibilities can be drawn, without either mortifying the ambition of the president, or cutting down the engineer to the level of a land surveyor. To examine into and reflect upon these relations, will be of very great advantage to all interested in the discipline, and of course prosperity of rail-roads. It is true, that all great works, to be successful, must be the charge of one great mind, and, if circumstances admitted, there could be no safer application for this rule than to rail-roads. But these enterprises call for far more comprehensive powers of intellect and judgment to conduct them from their projection to their complete operation, than can be found at all in our midst possessed by any one man. Where can be found the financier capable of serving a company as well in the engineer's chair as the director's? Where the engineer who could find time to devote to the duties of his profession and to providing ways and means? The two departments, financial and operative, are so distinct, each so important and extensive, each demanding its peculiar turn of mind, that if it were possible to find on earth one individual competent to unite them in action *most salutary to the interests of a company*—he would stand alone and a wonder to all the world. Thus then it must appear that the duties of a president, such as our states ordinarily furnish their boards with, must, to secure the greatest benefit to the company, lie wholly within one or the other of the above departments; and further, that these men, taken as they are, for the most part, from the counting-room, the plantation, or even the law bench, are not, nor ever could be, prepared to transact the business of the operative bureau without an engineer's training of some ten years. It remains then that they devote themselves, body and soul, to the finance. On the other hand it is both unreasonable and inexpedient, perhaps unsafe, to crowd on the engineer the duties of providing and disbursing; his concerns of construction and operation, altogether professional and not to be learned by intuition, leave him no time to bother with bonds and instalments; one moment's suspension of his supervision may cost a company more than whole months devoted to finance will pay for. It must be evident, then, that there is no excuse for any clashing of duties between the two officers—they pursue distinct parallel lines, individually responsible; one provides for the outlay, the other makes the outlay; the president need know nothing of the engineer's duties, and is not responsible for the quality of work done on the road, nor should ever be praised or blamed for its good or bad operation—the engineer is as dependent upon the provision of means to conduct his works as the locomotive upon fuel, and should never be held to task for the delays caused by a meagre treasury. To return: the true engineer, after satisfying himself that his position is understood and his responsibilities appreciated by his co-laborers of the board, will institute a searching examination into the pecuniary resources of his company; if he finds these only just sufficient for building the most temporary of trap-stick roads, he will have the courage to refuse making any step so fatal to the interest of the company and the welfare of the public, as embarking on any such enterprise; he will not strive by false estimates and distorted views of economy to deceive the board into action, but will advise delay until more means are provided, if

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they be only enough to start the undertaking on a safe scale of economy. Should the funds placed at his disposal, however, be adequate to the building of a substantial road, he will, on mature deliberation, strike out such a standard of construction, equipment and operation as will, without degrading by its parsimonious exactions the dignity of the enterprise, yet be most conducive to the company's best interests. The board will then find him ready for action; his counsel will be sought and his real value begin to appear; they will not have to draw out from him a reluctant and quibbling opinion, no evasive answer, or obscurely devised plan; they will never catch him at fault as to the next step to be taken, nor surprise him unprepared for the most sudden emergency. His must be the high responsibility of continually foreseeing the work ahead, and reporting such provisions necessary or such moves expedient; a foresight proportioned to a knowledge and experience never possessed by the board. But while insisting on his own claim to attention in the councils of the company, he will avoid, as far as possible, all undue assumptions of office; the treasurer he will contend is the only proper person to disburse funds in payment of work, as called upon by certificates indorsed by himself; and by refusing ever to act in his capacity, he will be able to devote more professional time to the company, and secure himself from any suspicions of defaulting. The system of contracts, modified as it must be by the circumstances of each section of country, he will have clearly understood between the board and himself; firmly asserting his peculiar fitness to act as the company's agent in drawing up all such obligations, alone and untrammeled by the interference of the president director, he will yet be obliged to submit, from time to time, to the scrutiny of the united board, all the contracts he has entered into. The necessity of his acting in this matter of contracts on his own judgment, must be apparent to every reasonable mind; for he only is the competent judge of a contractor's fitness, whose business it is to inspect and receive for the company—the president having no more reasonable claim to the contract power in the case of graduation than in the purchase of surveyin instruments, being as ignorant of the merits of one as of the other. Where the work of construction is begun on the most favorable auspices, and resources are abundant, the engineer will take pride in impressing every structure, however inconsiderable, with the seal of durable excellence, and will invite criticism, not from the uninformed or inexperienced, but from knowing ones; his judgment will comprehend the charge of every department of construction to the minutest details; nothing will be left to the contractors, from the bridge-builder to the spike furnisher, but to obey plans and specifications; these last will admit of no latitude of construction, nor will there be any relaxing of discipline in their requirements; above all, the chief engineer will view with jealousy any movements on the part of the other officers of the company or of the stockholders to influence and interfere with the duties of his assistants; complaints, if they have to be made, he will insist must come to him first, as the only proper judge of such professional questions, and in this view he should have full authority to appoint or dismiss all his assistants. It is not necessary that his management, to be the best, must be extolled by all the world—he cannot, on the contrary, do his duty, and be true to the company's interest, without displeasing many an avaricious contractor.

Heavy now as we have seen his responsibilities to be—powerful as he is for good, in exact proportion should he be watched. The moment he is admired by every one for his "accommodating" virtues, there is danger of his not being a reliable man. Once bent on "accommodation," or impotent through ignorance, and there is no calculating the mischief he may work; it may not betray itself for years, but hidden in the materials of construction, or ingeniously concealed in obscure book-keeping, or disseminated by example among his assistants, it will eventually show itself, and will bring down upon his head the just indignation of a deeply injured community.

Time will not permit us to develop more of the duties of a chief engineer; there are others connected with the more advanced stages of the road which might be noticed; but enough has been said to remind the reader of the immense influence for good or ill possessed by this

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officer over the vital interests of a railroad company, and, in a great measure, over the citizens of whole states.

Turn we now to contemplate, for a moment, the aspect of the profession, as represented by not a few, at this moment. Here sits a chief at the head of an important road, whose presumption is only equaled by his ignorance. With neither the dignity nor attainments necessary to fill an ordinary clerkship, his scanty acquirements are concealed by great cunning; what he calls his experience is better known by others to have been the following, for three years, of a bad example; his delight is to pass for a genius, by the simple process of asserting it himself. The board upon whom he has been thrust by an influential capitalist, without the least scrutiny into either his abilities or testimonials, have long since seen through him, but he must be retained as a hostage for the favor of his friends. Under the gloss of his flourishes, and brag, and wise looks, it was an easy matter to detect the impostor; besides which, the evident shuffling when opinions were desired, the fidgetiness seen too plainly when questions were propounded relative to certain very natural obstacles in the construction of the road, told at once his utter ignorance, and the vast extent of his assurance. Finding that no dependence can be placed on their engineer, the board unfortunately fall into the error of supposing him a specimen of the best, because imported from an older state by a man of great capital, and with no information to undeceive them, they are blundering along, soon to stumble in the darkness of their own unassisted counsels, and confess, after the happening of some great catastrophe, that they have been most egregiously duped. Meanwhile, their engineer, who, with all his ignorance, is still possessed of that "little knowledge" which is such a dangerous thing, selects such duties as he may fancy himself best prepared to perform, leaving others, and generally the most important in his profession, to the mercy of his inexperienced board, or of some better informed and keen-cutting contractor. In the one case, there is certain bungling and detention; in the other, the duty is performed never faithfully, and always at an exorbitant charge. He may amuse himself in his own sloven way for a time with attention to surveys, a duty generally unnecessary to a chief aided by good assistants, or he may attend to the correspondence of the board, like an obedient clerk; but for anything like devotion to the high questions of policy in construction, equipment, and operation, which the board, without the counsel of a competent engineer, must discuss in utter darkness, he never presumes to venture an opinion; he fails to act where a good chief would be of greatest value to a company: and thus, besides subjecting his company to heavy losses by improperly treating subjects he does act upon, his failure to act upon others is a still greater source of loss and disaster. There goes a stripling like the last, straight from his rod to a distant chiefship; he cares not for qualifications; he says, "who can find me out where no no one ever saw an engineer before?" This one has not the self-esteem of the other; conscious of his own deficiencies, he relies upon the ignorance of his employers to escape detection. Here another, who, dropping the yard-stick and seizing the rod, is transformed, in a few weeks, to an experienced assistant. But there are others, who, having far more ability and experience than these, yet abuse their really fine talents by a selfish pursuit after popularity; who sacrifice all principles, moral and scientific, to the love of praise; who, by intrigue and acuteness, strive to gain an elevated position in society. These men lower the rank of the profession, by presenting an example of careless discipline among contracts for purposes of favor, by engaging in dishonorable alliances for reciprocating profits, and finally disgrace themselves and their profession by the boldest dishonesty.

Such caricatures, it may be thought, are easily drawn by the pen of envy or spleen, and to be on the guard against them is unnecessary: be it so, the warning will have been uttered, and its justice will be seen in time. But relying upon large personal observation, and the representation of no limited or sectional acquaintance, the writer is convinced that they have not been overdrawn, that they will not startle by their extravagance *all* the thinking directors or self-respecting engineers of our section; they will rather call out an echo of assent, and stimulate to warmer zeal in the work of reform.

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And now that we have shown the vast and threatening departure from duty in a profession so much trusted to by our rail-road companies, and so vitally influencing the conduct of every enterprise of the kind, it may reasonably be asked if any defects exist in the organization or operation of the numerous executive boards in our midst, to which may be traced in part this dangerous deterioration.

One great cause then is to be found in the want of proper qualification with which most of our directors go into office. Were they better qualified by commercial experience and enlarged views of economy, and less dependent upon the opinions of others more prominent, but not better informed than themselves; could they realize the novelty in commercial finance presented by rail-road management, and distinguish it from that of a bank, or a plantation, or a law docket, and prepare themselves accordingly; could they understand the uses and abuses of engineering better than they do, and know where to look for that information which they too often seek from interested parties; were they chosen as well for character as attainments, for independence of action as for liberal education, from the ranks of "the unterrified," rather than the party hustings, then would there be doubtless fewer instances of unwise appointments to chief engineerships, and a more discerning judgment would prevail in all their subsequent management.—Another cause growing out of this first is the almost unlimited power which most boards resign to their president. If he be an ambitious man, he will find it easy to persuade his fellow directors that he knows more than themselves, for they are generally too willing to hand over responsibility; and thus unchecked by them, he ventures forth, the embodiment of all their ignorance; claiming the credit of all that escapes his own bungling, and blaming on his board all that does not. In deciding on the appointment of the engineer, this man's opinion will thus be often paramount, and some creature who will best further his own interests, or whose friends are best worth pleasing, will be imposed upon the company. Should such an engineer be appointed, he will pass for nothing in the concerns of the company, for an unchecked president would not admit any but a dumb machine. Ambitious of all responsibility, he cannot bear to have his company told anything but through his own mouth, and to his own credit. Should, however, a good engineer be slipped into office, and by conscious merit and candid representations begin to influence the board contrary to this president's designs, his rage will be so excited, and his influence once obtained over the directors so successfully urged, that the company must immediately lose the services of its best friend. There are other causes more or less directly connected with this low standard of engineering at the South, but they can here be only glanced at; among them may be mentioned the too general error of letting economy run into parsimony, which, by exhibiting itself in cutting down the income of the chief engineer to a sum very small compared with that allowed the European or even Northern engineers, and by the absurd system of putting up the office to be bid for, as has been frequently done of late, has aided materially in disgusting Engineers of worth, and drawing into the profession such mountebanks as we have before described.

The continuance of this state of things will speedily bring about a round of disasters as frequent and painful as those witnessed on our great lines of river travel. The construction of a rail-road by an incompetent engineer, besides costing the company treble its real worth, is a heinous crime to the public; lives are every moment in jeopardy; the decayed timber accepted from the contractor by an ignorant or dishonest engineer—the unscientific disposition of an arch left perhaps to the mercy of the mason, and a hundred other items of construction which make up the whole, are all to be laid to the door of this impostor. The operation of rail-roads which demands the very closest attention of the engineer, will in the hands of such men be the scene of disorder and constant complaint: the complex system of accounts will be entangled to the heavy loss of the company, and the transportation continually interrupted by the most shameful accidents. Questions come up before boards that in the early history of the

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road never were anticipated: removals, changes in location of property, or the line itself, questions involving millions, and demanding the highest engineering talent, will be either left to the wild guesses of these men, or in equally mistaken policy, be decided by the board without any engineering counsel whatever. The results of such decisions may readily be imagined; they will have the effect of unsettling public confidence in the safety of both the road and the company's stocks, to say nothing of the certain failure of plan consequent upon the neglect to employ competent professional advice.

It becomes then the duty of every one who would see this consummation averted, to be alive to the true requisites of a chief engineer. It concerns deeply the directors and stockholders of our numerous rail-road companies to use the utmost vigilance at this time against the impositions of the class we have described; to scrutinize with jealousy the testimonials of candidates—the professional testimonials—not the glowing eulogies of capital-holding friends; to consult as authority the high names of experienced and well-known engineers among us whose works have stood the test of time; to extend their acquaintance and familiarity with the profession in other states, and above all to cultivate that spirit of conscious preparation and strict inquiry which will neither permit them to entrust their prerogatives of election to another, nor to decline a thorough examination into the capabilities of their candidates. Let them look upon rail-road management as a business peculiar in itself, and one requiring time to test its operations; engineering as a business not to be attained by intuition, and the two as vitally influencing each other. And shame to those who, high in power and influence, so lower the standard of a noble profession, and so endanger the fortunes of companies, and the lives of their fellows, as to harbor and patronize the ignorant and untried engineer quack!

ART. VII.—FREE BANKING.

PART IV.

HAVING now examined the general theory of the system of Free Banking, let us inquire into its practical operation. We have before remarked, that New-York presented the scheme in its greatest perfection and largest development. When, therefore, we refer to the system as it prevails under her laws, we give it a most favorable view. If success and safety could attend it anywhere, it surely would be in that magnificent commonwealth whose extent of capital and domain give her an almost imperial sway over the commerce of the rest of the Union. Into her lap is poured the mineral, agricultural and manufacturing wealth of nearly all the Western and Middle States. The great tide of exchange sets towards her emporium, and in the vaults of her banks are stored the surplus funds of nearly all the banks and bankers of the Union. She alone has tested free banking, for any fair period of time. Other states have, it is true, followed in her footsteps,—but of them we must say, as was sung of the young Ascanius:

..... sequiturque patrem, non passibus equis.

The limited history of the experiment in Massachusetts, Vermont and Illinois, hardly merit more than a passing notice.

All will agree, that New-York is the state most favorably adapted for the success of free banking—not only because of the advantages we have glanced at, but because of the high repute of her state and municipal stocks, and the immense concentration of wealth in her large cities. The high value of her stocks gives tone and confidence to the notes pledged on them, whilst the countless thousands, at all times at the command of her capitalists, prevent her solvent securities from ever being largely depreciated.

How Louisiana, with her limited wealth and her onerous debt, could compensate for these advantages, we have yet to discover. Granting, then,

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all that the most sanguine friends of the New-York system contend for,—admitting that there the machinery works perfectly—that few banks break, and that, even then, their notes bring nearly par,—admitting all this, and still what is there to encourage us to attempt a similar scheme.

In New-York, a great stock-buying and stock-selling fraternity are always on hand to make investments, at a slight decline in prices. There, a large supply of these securities is always to be had, and there, the great sales of them are usually effected. In New-York, capital is so abundant, that upon such stocks money may always be obtained, at very low rates of interest, and they are as easily convertible into cash as cotton, tobacco or corn. Now, how is it in Louisiana? Our state stock is barely reputable, and generally held abroad. Our banking capital is, in few instances, furnished by our own people, and the majority of the stock is owned by foreign capitalists. The wealth of our merchants is more than required to handle the crops of our planters, and could be diverted from its present channels only with detriment to our commerce. Our rates of interest are consequently high, and must continue to be so for several years to come. Our produce is often materially depreciated by the stringency of money markets, and sales of state or municipal stocks could, in such cases, be effected only at alarming and terrible sacrifices. How long such things will exist we cannot foretell, but at present they are stubborn facts, which must materially interfere with the success of free banking in our state.

But the question arises—how does the system work in New-York? Let us to the record.

The whole number of banks, free and chartered, in the state of New-York, on the 1st Jan., 1852, was, of

Banking Associations	95
Individual Bankers	77
Chartered Banks	72
Total	244

Of these, 37 were new banks or bankers, commencing with the previous six months;—showing an increase of banks at the rate of thirty per cent. per annum. The movement of these 244 institutions, in the nine months inclusive, from Dec., 1850, to Sept., 1851, was as follows:

LIABILITIES.

Increase of Capital	$8,000,000
" Circulation	1,467,000
	$9,467,000

RESOURCES.

Increase in Bonds and Mortgages	$1,300,000
" Stocks	1,300,000
" Discounts	2,100,000
	$4,700,000

Showing a decrease of—

Resources as compared with liabilities	$4,767,000
To which add decrease of specie	4,927,000
And decrease of amounts due from solvent Banks	9,400,000
Making an expansion, in nine months, of	$19,094,000

These figures, taken from the lucid roport of the present superintendent of the Banking Department, Mr. D. B. St. John, indicate the following facts:

1st. That in nine months the specie has decreased nearly five millions, and the deposits of other banks ten millions; thus showing a decrease of cash assets of fifteen millions, to meet any unusual demand.

On further examination, we find:

The circulation in December, 1850, about	$27,000,000
Amount due depositors	48,901,000
" banks on demand	15,639,000
" treasurer, New-York	2,184,000
Total, liable to be called for at any moment	$93,724,000

To meet which, we find the following assets, which can alone be considered as equal to cash:

Stocks	$15,339,000
Specie	7,021,000
Due from banks on demand	8,720,000
Cash items (?)	12,000,000
	$43,080,000

In other words, the banks of the state of New-York, on 1st January last, had in circulation nearly four dollars in paper for one in specie, and owed depositors and others, on demand, $66,000,000, leaving cash assets to meet such calls to extent of only $36,000,000. Consider well these figures, and tell us if this is a favorable exposition for free banking? Do the people of Louisiana envy any such state of currency?

Having given these figures to indicate the dangerous expansion which has thus far attended free banking, we will

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now show that it is an inherent evil, springing from the system itself, and not a mere accidental condition of it.

What is the nature of the securities on which New-York issues her twenty-seven millions of paper? They are as follows:—

Bonds and mortgages	$3,117,000
Illinois state stock	651,000
Arkansas "	375,000
Indiana "	6,000
Michigan "	200,000
U. S. and New-York state stock	12,000,000

We thus find that one-fourth of these securities are mortgages on real estate and insolvent state stocks; and yet, forsooth, this is called securing the currency!

The American Exchange Bank of New-York has a circulation of $400,000, and out of $500,000 of stock deposited, we find near $400,000 to be Illinois bonds. The Albany Exchange Bank holds securities in about the same proportion of Arkansas and Michigan bonds.

And still these are called good and strong banks—the former being one of the best and most influential in the city of New-York. We enumerate these instances and figures to show how the system works in practice, and we leave it to the candid mind to say whether they do not unequivocally condemn the whole plan.

Let us now turn to the comments of the superintendent, in the report just referred to. That officer was in the convention which framed the present constitution. He was, and is now, a strong advocate of free banking. His testimony may, therefore, be regarded as that of a friend of the system. He says:

"The controller in his annual report, in 1850, to the legislature, called its attention to the system of banking as practiced by many individual bankers. I deem it my duty to *again* call the attention of the legislature to this subject.

"The law of 1848, cap. 340, expressly provides that all banks shall be banks of discount and deposit, as well as of circulation; and that the usual business of all banking associations and individual bankers shall be transacted at the place where such association or individual banker shall be located. It is believed that this provision of the law is, in many cases, entirely evaded. The quarterly reports received show that they are not banks of discount and deposit, having neither; or if they have, it is a mere nominal sum, incorporated into their reports to comply with the form and not the spirit of the law. They are mere banks of circulation, and are established for that purpose alone. The business of circulating their notes is done exclusively through agents—brokers in commercial cities, distant from the location of the bank. In many instances, it is believed, the banker does not even sign the notes issued from this department and put in circulation, but gives that power to an agent, with power also to appoint a substitute or substitutes for that purpose, to deposit securities, receive interest on the same, exchange securities and mutilated notes, and to do all acts connected with the bank which the banker himself could do. In this manner are evaded the provisions of the law of 1848, which makes it obligatory for banks and bankers to transact their usual business at the places where they are located. *These banks afford no facility to the business portion of the community,* and in a time of pressure or embarrassment in the money market, not unfrequently allow their notes to be discredited, thereby creating a panic, and subjecting the billholders to losses. The system of selling and transferring individual banks from one person to another, and the frequent changes of location, has become an evil which, in my judgment, requires a remedy. It is believed that, in some cases, individual banks are transferred to irresponsible parties, and that the real owners, or the parties interested in the benefits and advantages of the same, avoid all personal responsibility, by conducting their business in the names of other parties.

"The establishing of individual banks (in parts of the state remote from the great thoroughfares and the general current of business) and selling them, has come to be regarded by some as a legitimate transaction. It is urged by those interested, that, inasmuch as they are required to deposit the same securities for the redemption of their circulating notes as those that do a regular business of discounting paper and receiving deposits, they give equal security to the billholder. It is, however, apparent that there is a great difference in the security afforded to billholders by the two classes. A bank of mere circulation having no capital or assets, except the securities deposited with the superintendent, cannot be regarded in the same light with a

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bank having a real capital and doing a legitimate business. In the one case, the public must depend entirely on the securities held by the superintendent in trust for the redemption of the circulating notes, (in case of failure,) without reliance upon assets, capital, or individual responsibility; in the other case, the capital, assets, and individual responsibility of stockholders add much to the security of billholders."

Such are the abuses which an advocate of free banking has already discovered in its practical operation. According to his report, banks have been instituted in the by-ways and hedges of the interior, not to facilitate commerce and aid the trades-people of its vicinity, but for the mere purpose of having a "local habitation and name," and procuring the slender deposits of the rustic and unsuspicious farmer. They issue their circulation far away from those whom they profess to benefit.* The name of the bank may be at Chautauque or at Bainbridge, but their business office and their money are in Wall-street.

How truly does the superintendent say, that there is a great difference in the security afforded by such institutions and that of those doing a legitimate and regular business. He confesses, after all, that stocks are not equal to the strength of actual capital, *bona fide* assets and individual responsibility.

And what is the natural consequence of this kind of circulation? Plainly, that the weak and reckless bank and banker furnishes the currency, whilst the staunch and strong institution avoids issuing any more paper than is absolutely necessary. The well conducted bank, whose means are ample, needs no such fictitious addition to its strength as is afforded by a large floating circulation. It can illy afford to pay high premiums for 6 per cent. stocks, merely for the sake of a paper issue. Its deposits are large, and the transactions of its customers are usually carried on with checks and drafts, which require but few notes to manage. When its depositors wish discounts to meet their obligations, it is often but a transfer of credit from one name in the ledger to another. But with the weak bank the case is entirely different. Its circulation is its only wealth, and the more remote its distribution, the longer it is kept afloat. Having to make greater interest on that circulation than ordinary rates, it has to take extra hazardous risks, and when once the notes are returned home for redemption and their credit is shaken, there is no strength, no resource left, save the deposits with the state. In fact, the very necessity of depositing stocks, prevents limited and prudent banking. If an institution has but one hundred thousand dollars of capital, and invests it in stocks and mortgages, for which only ninety thousand of notes are received, and those are loaned out at a credit of two to four months, it has for the time exhausted its resources, and must wait the maturity of its discounts, before it can make any further loans. But if, in the interim, its notes are returned for specie, then the immature discounts must be sold, or the bank go to protest. This risk only the sanguine and reckless banker will incur. Into his hands, then, goes the circulating business, as he thinks and cares little for the danger which the prudent would avoid. Thus the provision which seemed to be a protection to the cautious and a check to the irresponsible, proves practically the reverse. We find this faithfully verified by analyzing the New-York bank reports for March, 1852.

The capital of the Bank of America, Bank of Commerce and Bank of New-York was, in the aggregate.....	$7,642,000
Their circulation was.....	495,000
Their specie.....	5,300,000
Amount due depositors.....	6,000,000
Amount discounts and due from banks	13,500,000
Total resources.....	20,000,000

Now, we challenge the world to produce a sounder condition of banks than this. With such institutions we would feel that the currency was beyond any contingency. These three banks issue but one dollar in paper where they have 13 in specie, but one in 18 of capital, and but one in 50 of their resources. Let us now turn to the banks of *mere*

* To show the extent of this practice, one fact is worthy of note. The magnificent hotel lately erected at Niblo's Garden, and superbly kept by the Messrs. Leland, has, besides other novel improvements, a *bank* connected with it. This institution purports to be in the western part of New-York, and is called the Leland Bank. Its notes have a vignette of the Metropolitan Hotel upon them, and the only design of the bank appears to be to furnish money to the mammoth hotel. Its stock is chiefly held by the proprietors of the hotel, and its notes are used in furnishing change to travelers and paying for marketing and servants' wages, a mode of circulation which guarantees their being long kept afloat.

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circulation, and we will take them without selection.

The total capital of the Bank of Whitestone, Washington County Bank, Bank of Ithaca, Amenia Bank, Union Bank and Franklin Bank of Chautauque county, was	$250,000
Their circulation was	362,000
Specie	10,349
Amount due depositors	259,000
Amount discounts, &c..	380,000
Total resources	1,036,000

We thus find six interior banks issuing 36 times as much paper as specie; one-third more than their capital and one-third as much as their total resources; two of them have neither deposits nor discounts, and one has not 100 specie dollars in her vaults. And yet, rotten as are these banks, it is they which furnish the every-day currency of the State of New-York. It is the notes of such institutions which are found with the market-man and the laborer, which, with the broad seal of the controller stamped on their face, come into the toil-worn and horny hand of the mechanic, the farmer and the boatman. For him the strong bank gives no circulation. He has no money to deposit with them, and must take confidingly whatever is offered for his work. Laying away his stock-secured notes in his wallet, he thanks his legislators for protecting him from the frauds of insolvent banks.

How well grounded his confidence is, let us examine. Perhaps there has seldom been greater prosperity in commerce than has existed in the years 1851–52, and yet we find that during that period 28 banks have failed in the State of New-York, five having been protested in Oct., 1851. One year has elapsed, and yet only a partial dividend has been made to their billholders. "The bonds and mortgages," says the superintendent, "held in trust for these, sold at a large discount." Of the 23 banks which failed up to 1852, only 5 paid 80 cents, 13 paid 60 cents, 3 paid 50 cents and 4 paid 30 to 40 cents in the dollar. And yet this is called securing the currency! The report does not inform us how much was lost by the innocent and original holders of these notes. All that we know is the *pro rata* of distribution made months after suspension.

What the duped and cheated public *first* suffered we can only surmise. When we reflect on the panic which ensues after a failure, on the pressing wants of the poor man, who finds himself caught with five dollars of notes of a broken bank, when three dollars are needed to buy his family daily bread and pay for his humble shelter; when we reflect on the not less clamorous wants of the shrewd money dealer, who must make his cent. per cent. else he starve—when we reflect on all these and on all the delays and formalities of the law, we may form some appreciation of the sum which the original holder actually receives from the final sales of stocks and mortgages which they vainly boasted made their banks "as good as gold."

To prove still further the inefficiency of free banking, bear with us whilst we contrast the relative condition of the old incorporated or chartered banks of New-York, with the banking associations and individual bankers which have gone into operation under the constitution of 1846. It must be remembered, too, that this contract is most partial to the associate and individual banks. Many of the old chartered institutions have died out and their wealth has been diverted into the channels of free banking. If, then, the system were a wise one, it should show an immense preponderance of wealth, stability and business over the expiring corporations, whose limited charters prevent them from more actively and profitably using their capital.

As before stated, there are 72 incorporate banks and 172 free banks in the state. The following table indicates their relative position in round numbers:

Capital of	the free banks		$32,300,000
"	"	incorporate banks	26,900,000
Circulation of	the free banks		15,000,000
"	"	incorporate banks	12,000,000
Specie	"	free banks	3,031,000
"	"	incorporate banks	7,133,000
Deposits	"	free banks	17,000,000
"	"	incorporate banks	29,000.000
Discounts and cash items, free banks			55,000,000
" and cash items, inc'ate b'ks			70,000,000

From these figures we deduce the following conclusions:

That more capital is claimed by the free banks than by the chartered banks by near six millions of dollars, and that their circulation is greater by three millions. With this excess of means, we would reasonably expect them to have a larger line of discounts, greater amount of deposits, and better show of specie. But, what is the fact? They have, on the contrary, less specie by $3,000,000, fewer

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deposits by $11,000,000, and fewer discounts by $13,000,000; or, in plain English, they borrow more of the public by issuing more paper, lend it less by giving fewer discounts, and enjoy less of its confidence by showing smaller deposits. Here, then, the old chartered banks, whose notes are not secured by stock deposits, are evidently more trusted, trustworthy and trusting, than those institutions which have given bond and security for their good behavior. On its own ground, then, side by side with chartered banks, free banking has evidently come short of the purpose it professed to attain. But, if this is true of it now, in prosperous times, when specie and credit are abundant, how much truer will it be in time of trouble? If it is thus "in the green tree, what will it be in the dry?" In Louisiana we have heard a great clamor as to the want of banking facilities. However well founded such complaints may be, is free banking likely to give more? In New-York its 172 institutions give fewer discounts, issue more paper, and have less coin to meet its circulation, than 72 incorporated banks, which do not boast of as much capital by six millions of dollars.

But we must draw to a close this branch of our subject. The report and statistics of the superintendent of the banking department, suggest a number of ideas which we are compelled to pass over.

In reply to those who will bring up the old argument, of the "abuse of a thing being no objection to its use," we will recommend—

1st. That they get Jeremy Bentham's work on Fallacies, and learn there how sophistical is this antiquated proposition. The use of a thing being a strong argument in favor thereof, its abuse and its liability to abuse are equally good as against it.

2d. We will say, that if free banking shows this proclivity to evil which we have shown, there must be some strong tie of relationship between itself, notwithstanding its purity, and the vices we have pointed out. The government of Utopia would, no doubt, have been perfect, could the right sort of men have always been sent there. The difficulty of getting that sort of men made the government simply ridiculous. So free banking may be admirable, but its liability to be abused unfits it for beings as imperfect as we are.

It is now time that these articles were drawing to a close. Fairly and fully we have endeavored to meet these grave questions touching our currency and banking. The system we have condemned has received no intentional injustice at our hands; nay, a large branch of the subject is as yet untouched. We have said nothing of the worthlessness of such banks as institutions of deposit. Their very requirements utterly unfit them for such a trust. The billholder being the preferred, and, in fact, the only protected creditor, the great function of a savings' institution is entirely lost to them. In New-York there are 37 banks which have not a dollar of deposits, 15 have each less than $5,000, and 50 have under $50,000; so that, out of all of the free banks, only one-third have any claims to be considered as banks of deposit. Nor is this to be wondered at. The depositor knows full well that his hard-earned savings are used to keep afloat their inflated circulation, and that no fund is set aside to protect him from loss. And though the law prefers, and perhaps justly, the billholder to the depositor, yet one of the main purposes of a bank is to afford a safe and secure depository for the unneeded funds of the merchant, the farmer, the artisan, the laborer, the widow, and the orphan. We submit, in all candor, if free banking does not utterly fail to supply us with so necessary and useful an object.

We are aware that free banking is, just now, the popular theory in many of our states. It is the great invention in modern finance, but it is only new in appearance. Mr. Calhoun most pithily described it when he said, years ago, "that the tendency of the times was to convert all property into credits, and all credits, through the agency of banks, into currency."

In conclusion of these articles, let us briefly review our argument. We have endeavored to prove—

I. That banks are not creators of credit, but merely its auxiliaries, and in themselves unfit to carry on great and tedious systems of internal improvements. They are, therefore, not to be regarded as a means of developing the agricultural wealth of Louisiana and the South.

II. That no system or plan of banks can ever prosper or succeed whose currency is not instantly and directly convertible into specie without let or hindrance.

III. That no bank-note should be of a

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lesser denomination than five dollars, as small notes have a tendency to drive the small coin out of the country.

IV. That no check or guard against the abuses of banks is so potent as the individual responsibility of its stockholders and managers for all the losses its credits may incur.

V. That some legislative control should be exercised over the amount of paper money issued, inasmuch as an inflation and contraction of the currency has a tendency to unsettle values and create rash speculation on the one hand, and unnecessary alarm on the other, thereby subjecting the public to most visionary and unfounded hopes, as well as to most grievous and calamitous losses.

Tried by these tests, Free Banking cannot command our approbation, and it is, furthermore, open to the following additional objections :—

1st. That it gives an overweening power to the officer who is charged with the conduct of the banking department of the government.

2d. That state or government stocks can never displace coin, as a basis of currency; that they are themselves but credits, and to erect banks upon them is to give a fearful impetus to an expansion of credit, which must result in the direst commercial evils.

3d. That the use of government stocks in this way, gives a charm to public debt, and engenders a dangerous and wanton improvidence in our legislators, who are ever prone to put off the burdens of the present on the shoulders of the future. That this tendency is verified in the history of Free Banking in New-York, where a great political party was defeated by its opposition to this disposition to create a new debt, which would furnish new material for the increase of an already inflated currency.

4th. That as a public debt is a great evil, justified only by necessity, and as it should be paid at the earliest day, a system of banking, built on the evidences of such debt, can only exist coeval and commensurate with the debt, and cannot, of course, be looked to as a permanent scheme, but rather as a temporary expedient for the adjustment of the currency.

5th. That Free Banking is but a revival, in part, of the old property bank system, with which Louisiana was once cursed, as it permits the use of bonds and mortgages on real estate as securities for the currency.

6th. That taking the New-York system as the most perfect development of Free Banking, it exhibits in a period of great prosperity all the elements of an unsound and insecure currency; that the Free Banks of that state really afford fewer loans, have less specie in their vaults, and possess a larger circulation than the chartered banks. And, furthermore, that the paper circulation of the state is chiefly that of the weakest banks: the really staunch institutions evidently abandoning that function of banking to those institutions which are really the unfittest to perform it. And, moreover, that the New-York system only feebly secures the note-holder, as in the failure of twenty-eight banks in 1850-51, they did not, in many cases, distribute over thirty to fifty per cent.

7th. That the peculiar condition of Louisiana seems to us to condemn, in her case at least, a resort to banking on stocks. The state of her debt, her crippled resources, the heavy burdens hanging over New-Orleans, and the lack of surplus capital amongst her people, render it inexpedient for the wealth of her citizens to be invested in bank and state stocks, which can, with so much advantage to us, be held by foreign capital, leaving our own resources free.

8th. And lastly, that Free Banking not only gives no protection to the depositor, but by esteeming the note-holder as a preferred creditor, it actually makes the Free Bank the unsafest depository he could select. Of course, this most important function of banking is entirely stripped from this class of institutions.

On these points we rest our case. They may often lack system and clearness in their statement and exposition; and we have laid ourselves open to the charge of much repetition; but we hope the arguments will be fairly weighed in the consideration of this important subject. The hurrying cares of a mercantile life give few leisure moments for the treatment of subjects which really require days and weeks of reflection. If, however, these articles shall have aroused abler and better appointed intellects to an appreciation of the dangers of Free Banking, then our purpose will be accomplished.

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ART. VIII.—AFFAIRS OF THE REPUBLIC, EIGHTEEN HUNDRED AND FIFTY-TWO.

PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE—POST-OFFICE—NAVY—INTERIOR—WAR DEPARTMENT—LAND OFFICE—PATENT OFFICE—PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION—STATISTICS.

THE public documents which emanate annually from Washington, give a pretty fair notion of the state of this country, and we are determined hereafter to analyze and preserve them, in order that they may be referred to from year to year in compact form.

The message of the President refers to the *Fishery Question*, stating that it is still open, although the English government have disclaimed any intention to enforce their construction of the convention of 1818 by the presence of a naval armament. Our vessels for the last nine years have been excluded from waters to which they had free access for twenty-five years after the negotiation of this treaty. This exclusion was relaxed in 1845 as to the Bay of Fundy, but the liberal policy was again abandoned, from the opposition of the colonies, notwithstanding our liberal course towards colonial fishermen, who have been enabled to acquire the monopoly of our export trade in fish, and to supply a large part of our consumption. New conventions it is hoped will be entered into the present winter, which shall be satisfactory to all parties.

The President declined becoming a party with Great Britain and France to guarantee to Spain the possession of Cuba. He, however, regards "its incorporation into the Union as fraught at the present time with serious peril."—The other topics are the Tehuantepec question, which he says is now in the hands of the Senate; the question relating to the port of San Juan de Nicaragua; the Guano question, in which an unintentional error is acknowledged; the tariff, which is "not sufficiently protective to our industry," and in the particular of ad valorems greatly open to frauds; the Mexican boundary commission, and the interruption of the surveys in consequence of the appropriations for it being made conditional on the position of the line with reference to El Paso; the policy of interference in the affairs of foreign powers, etc. etc.

"The cash receipts in the Treasury for the fiscal year ending the 30th of June last, exclusive of trust funds, were $49,728,386 89. The expenditures for the same period, likewise exclusive of trust funds, were $46,007,896 20, of which $9,455,815 83 was on account of the principal and interest of the public debt, including the last instalment of the indemnity to Mexico, under the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, leaving a balance of $14,632,136 37 in the Treasury on the first day of July last. Since this latter period, further purchases of the principal of the public debt have been made to the extent of $2,456,547 49; and the surplus in the Treasury will continue to be applied to that object whenever the stock can be procured within the limits as to price authorized by law.

"The value of foreign merchandise imported during the last fiscal year was $207,240,101, and the value of domestic productions exported was $149,861,911, besides $17,204,026 of foreign merchandise exported, making the aggregate of the entire exports $167,065,937. Exclusive of the above, there was exported $42,507,285 in specie, and imported from foreign ports $5,262,643."

On the subject of our prospective *commerce with South America*, about which we have had so much to say, the President remarks:

"The recent revolution in Buenos Ayres and the confederated states, having opened the prospect of an improved state of things in that quarter, the governments of Great Britain and France determined to negotiate with the chief of the new confederacy for the free access of their commerce to the extensive countries watered by the tributaries of the La Plata, and they gave a friendly notice of this purpose to the United States, that we might, if we thought proper, pursue the same course. In compliance with this invitation, our minister at Rio Janeiro, and our Chargé d'Affaires at Buenos Ayres, have been fully authorized to conclude

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treaties with the newly organized confederation, or the states composing it. The delays which have taken place in the formation of the new government, have, as yet, prevented the execution of those instructions, but there is every reason to hope that these vast countries will be eventually opened to our commerce.

"A treaty of commerce has been concluded between the United States and the oriental Republic of Uruguay, which will be laid before the Senate. Should this convention go into operation, it will open to the commercial enterprise of our citizens a country of great extent and unsurpassed in natural resources, but from which foreign nations have hitherto been almost wholly excluded."

In regard to the purposes, etc., of the *Japan expedition*, the message continues:

"I have accordingly been led to order an appropriate naval force to Japan, under the command of a discreet and intelligent officer of the highest rank known to our service. He is instructed to endeavor to obtain from the government of that country some relaxation of the inhospitable and anti-social system which it has pursued for about two centuries. He has been directed particularly to remonstrate, in the strongest language, against the cruel treatment to which our shipwrecked mariners have often been subjected, and to insist that they shall be treated with humanity. He is instructed, however, at the same time, to give that government the amplest assurances that the objects of the United States are such only as I have indicated, and that the expedition is friendly and peaceful. Notwithstanding the jealousy with which the governments of Eastern Asia regard all overtures from foreigners, I am not without hopes of a beneficial result of the expedition. Should it be crowned with success, the advantages will not be confined to the United States, but as in the case of China, will be equally enjoyed by all the other maritime powers. I have much satisfaction in stating, that in all the steps preparatory to this expedition, the Government of the United States has been materially aided by the good offices of the King of the Netherlands, the only European power having any commercial relation with Japan."

We extract a single passage more, on the *progress and resources of the country:*

"We live in an age of progress, and ours is emphatically a country of progress. Within the last half century the number of states in this Union has nearly doubled, the population has almost quadrupled, and our boundaries have been extended from the Mississippi to the Pacific.

"Our territory is checkered over with railroads, and furrowed with canals. The inventive talent of our country is excited to the highest pitch, and the numerous applications for patents for valuable improvements distinguish this age and this people from all others. The genius of one American has enabled our commerce to move against wind and tide, and that of another has annihilated distance in the transmission of intelligence. The whole country is full of enterprise. Our common schools are diffusing intelligence among the people, and our industry is fast accumulating the comforts and luxuries of life. This is in part owing to our peculiar position, to our fertile soil, and comparatively sparse population; but much of it is also owing to the popular institutions under which we live, to the freedom which every man feels to engage in any useful pursuit, according to his taste or inclination, and to the entire confidence that his person and property will be protected by the laws. But whatever may be the cause of this unparalleled growth in population, intelligence and wealth, one thing is clear, that the government must keep pace with the progress of the people. It must participate in their spirit of enterprise; and while it exacts obedience to the laws, and restrains all unauthorized invasions of the rights of neighboring states, it should foster and protect home industry, and lend its powerful strength to the improvement of such means of intercommunication as are necessary to promote our internal commerce, and strengthen the ties which bind us together as a people."

It appears by the report of the *Postmaster-General* that 526 offices were established, and 236 discontinued, during the past year. Whole number existing November 1, 1852, 21,191. [For statistics and history of U. S. Post-Office, from earliest period, see Industrial Resources, vol. 2.] In operation in the United States 6,711 mail routes, their aggregate length being 214,284 miles, and employ-

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ing 5,206 contractors. The annual transportation of the mails on these routes was 58,985,728 miles, at an annual cost of $3,939,971, being 6 7-10 cents per mile. Of these 58,985,728 miles of annual transportation, 11,082,768 miles were required to be performed upon rail-roads, at a cost of $1,275,520, being about 11½ cents per mile; 6,353,409 miles in steamboats, at a cost of $505,815, being about 8 cents per mile; 20,698,930 miles in coaches, at a cost of $1,128,986, being about 5½ cents per mile; and 20,850,621 miles in modes not specified, at a cost of $1,029,650, being about 4 9-10 cents per mile.

There were in operation on the 30th day of June last six foreign mail routes, of the estimated aggregate length of 18,349 miles. The number of miles of annual transportation thereon is estimated at 652,406. The service on three of these routes is under contract with this Department; the annual transportation thereon is estimated at 260,592 miles, at a cost of $400,000, being about $1 99 per mile. The service on the other three routes is under contract with the Navy Department. The annual transportation thereon is estimated at 458,934 miles, at an annual cost of $1,496,250, (including the additional compensation voted to the Collins' line at the last session of Congress,) being about $3 26 per mile.

Our ocean steamer service commenced in June, 1847. Its great and rapid increase is shown by the following tabular statement of its cost, for each fiscal year, as follows:

The cost of this service for		1848	was....	$100,500
"	"	1849	"	474,710
"	"	1850	"	721.570
"	"	1851	"	1,023,250
"	"	1852	"	1,896,250

The gross receipts of the Department for the year ended June 30, 1852, were $6,925,971 28, derived from the following sources, viz.:

Letter postage, including foreign postage and stamps sold		$4,226,792 90
Postage on newspapers, periodicals, &c.		789,246 36
Fines, other than those imposed on contractors		27 50
Receipts on account of excess of emoluments to postmasters		38,478 24
Damages collected from failing contractors		5,213 30
Receipts on account of dead letters		8,265 12
Receipts from letter carriers		104,355 92
Stamps in hands of postmasters 30th June, 1851, being such as remained of the old issue, and which were charged to them on that day		8,849 61
Miscellaneous receipts		3,297 89
From appropriation, authorized by twelfth section of the act of 3d March, 1847, viz: from 3d March, 1847, to 30th June, 1852		1,065,555 55
From appropriation, authorized by eighth section of act of March, 1851		663,888 89
From appropriation, for "census mails," authorized by seventeenth section of the act of 23d May, 1850		12,000 00
Total		$6,925,971 28
From this amount must be deducted the amount payable to the British post-office, under the postal convention of December, 1848, as now estimated, from statement of the auditor		101,988 59

The receipts, in consequence of the reduction of postage, have fallen off $1,388,334 from the preceding year; the experiment not having yet had sufficient time to be tested.

The expenditures of the Department during the last fiscal year were as follows:

For the transportation of the mails	$4,225,311 28
Ship, steamboat and way-letters	24,587 94
Compensation to postmasters	1,296,765 50
Extra compensation to postmasters under act of March 3, 1851	456,594 84
Wrapping paper	41,046 12
Office furniture	7,890 77
Advertising	63,157 12
Mail bags	41,946 50
Blanks	53,861 83
Mail locks and keys, and stamps	11,984 64
New mail locks and keys	18,756 97
Mail depredations and special agents	35,197 82
Clerks for offices, (offices of postmasters,)	548,916 71
Publishing post-office laws and regulations	2,900 00
Repayment of money found in dead letters	82 61
Postage stamps	9,929 03
Postage stamps redeemed	3,809 35
Stamps of old issue returned to the Department	8,229 20
Official letters received by postmasters	582 89
Payments to letter-carriers	104,355 92
Miscellaneous payments	152,561 00
Total	$7,108,459 04

For the next year the expenditures, it is estimated, will reach $8,745,777 20. The revenues for the same time, including $1,200,000 from government, $7,417,790, leaving a deficit of $1,327,986.

	1848.	1849.	1850.
Miles of steamboat service	4,385,800	4,083,976	4,109,981
Miles of rail-road service	4,327,400	4,861,177	6,524,593
Annual cost steamboat service	$262,019	$278,650	$313,943
Annu'l cost rail-road service	584,192	635,740	818,227
Total	$846,211	$914,390	$1,132,170

	1851.	1852.
Miles of steamboat service	5,454,982	6,353,409
Miles of rail-road service	8,568,707	11,082,768
Annual cost steamboat service	$544,892	$505,815
Annual cost rail-road service	985,099	1,275,520
Total	$1,439,911	$1,781,335

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The whole number of paid and unpaid letters which have passed through the post-offices of the United States, during the last fiscal year, was 95,790,524.

Of those passing through and from places in the United States, exclusive of California and Oregon, there were:

Unpaid	32,672,765
Paid by money	18,448,510
Paid by stamps	31,897,750
Free	3,146,000
These were conveyed by—	
European steamers	4,421,547
Havana steamers	99,372
California steamers	1,495,537
Number of dead letters unpaid	2,635,909
Number of dead letters paid	444,091
Number of newspapers and other packages of printed matter chargeable with postage	87,710,498
Number of exchange newspapers	7,073,548
Newspapers circulated free within the counties where published, estimated	20,000,000
Number of letters conveyed by—	
Cunard line of European steamers	2,758,096
Collins line do do	963,692
Bremen line do do	354,470
Havre line do do	345,287
Amount of postages collected from Collins and Cunard lines	$794,440 58
Of which was collected in the United States	463,615 98
Of which was collected in Great Britain	325,824 60
Number of dead letters returned to Great Britain	124,518
Of which 21,589 were paid, and 12,959 unpaid.	
Amount due to the United States thereon	$13,541 32
Number of dead letters received from Great Britain	38,505
Of which 9,800 were paid, and 28,645 unpaid.	
Amount due Great Britain thereon	$1,815 65
Number of dead letters returned to Bremen	3,801
Number of dead letters received from Bremen	2,587

MAIL SERVICE.

States.	1852 Transportation, Miles.	1852 Cost
Maine	177,528	$15,397
New-Hampshire	220,272	16,498
Vermont	270,660	31,508
Massachusetts	1,276,912	101,320
Rhode Island	86,112	8,612
Connecticut	565,365	47,236
New-York	2,837,276	262,830
New-Jersey	307,320	49,122
Pennsylvania	866,606	71,165
Maryland	597,064	312,700
Ohio	671,632	100,674
Virginia	366,946	73,393
North Carolina	263,016	53,571
South Carolina	411,528	52,010
Georgia	820,071	116,989
Michigan	601,120	83,958
Indiana	215,904	22,511
Illinois	106,704	9,164
Kentucky	136,864	8,840
Tennessee	83,616	5,742
Alabama	155,688	26,180
Mississippi	43,316	5,950
Louisiana	1,248	150
Total	11,082,768	$1,275,520

The whole amount of postages, inland, sea and foreign, on letters and other mailable matter, received and sent by the several lines of United States mail steamers, during the last fiscal year, was as follows, viz:—

By Collins line, New-York and Liverpool	$228,867 61
By New-York and Bremen line, touching at Southampton, England	77,219 87
By New-York and Havre line, touching at Cowes	80,804 08
By Charleston and Havana line	11,958 99

The postal arrangements with Canada and New-Brunswick have been in successful operation during the year, and have been found convenient and useful.

The amount of postage on letters sent from the United States to Canada was:

Unpaid	$31,034 66	
Paid	24,707 31	
		$55,741 97

On letters received:

Unpaid	$25,377 08	
Paid	22,144 60	
		$47,521 68

The amount of postage collected on letters sent from the United States to New-Brunswick was:

Unpaid	$2,356 38	
Paid	2,778 71	
		$5,135 09

On letters received:

Unpaid	$1,784 07	
Paid	1,893 40	
		$3,677 47

The Havre line are complaining that their receipts are but $12,500 per trip, whilst that of Collins receives $33,000 per trip. They show that, in addition to their having performed their mail service as efficiently as could be expected with the limited means allowed them, the exports from Germany to this country have increased since they commenced running from $3,000,000 to $10,000,000; that the number of emigrants is increasing, and the gross sum which they at present bring to this country amounts to $15,000,000 annually.

A postal convention has been closed with Prussia, providing for a closed mail, in each direction between the two countries, twice a week, via London and Ostend. New-York and Boston are the offices of exchange on the part of the United States, and Aix la Chapelle is the corresponding office of exchange on the part of Prussia.

By this convention a uniform postage rate of 30 cents, prepayment of which is

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optional in either country, is established for all letters not exceeding half an ounce in weight between the two countries. Six cents is the rate established for each newspaper, to be prepaid. This convention also provides for the transmission of mails, not only through Germany, but also through the United States to countries beyond, and has induced the department to discontinue the closed mail to Bremen. It is estimated that the countries, including the German Austrian Postal Union, which are thus brought into postal communication with the United States, embrace a population of seventy millions.

As a necessary consequence of our convention with Prussia, the larger part of the continental correspondence, which formerly went by the way of Bremen, is now sent via London, Ostend, and Aix la Chapelle—the latter being the more expeditious route. The mails for Bremen, however, and such as may be addressed via Bremen to other German states and countries beyond, will continue to be dispatched monthly by the New-York and Bremen line.

A project of a postal convention between the United States and Belgium has been prepared and submitted by the department for approval to the Belgian government, and it is confidently expected that in the course of a few months, at farthest, an arrangement, which shall be mutually advantageous, will be duly sanctioned and put in operation.

Our postal convention with Great Britain has not yet been so modified as to admit of the exchange of a closed mail with France via England; the British government, with reference to each mail, still insisting on a transit postage of twenty-four cents an ounce.

France has manifested a disposition for improved mail facilities with this country, and has made proposals for a postal treaty with the United States, to operate independently of our treaty with Great Britain. It is hoped that they may be conducted to a favorable issue at an early day. Connected with this project, France proposes, in conjunction with the United States, to establish a union line of mail steam-ships direct between New-York and Havre.

Under our postal treaty with Great Britain additional articles have been agreed upon, and are ready for signature, providing for a regular mail arrangement between the United States and the West Indies generally, and points on the coast of Mexico and northern coast of South America, at which the British mail-packets touch. To the British West Indies, the United States single rate of letter postage, which must be prepaid on letters sent from and collected on letters received in the United States, will be ten cents where the distance from the mailing office is under two thousand five hundred miles, and twenty cents when the distance exceeds two thousand five hundred miles. To the West Indies, (not British,) Mexico, and South America, by this channel, the British postage of twenty-four cents the single rate, also required to be prepaid, must be added to the ten or twenty cents United States rate, according to distance as above. This arrangement, it is expected, will go into effect without delay.

In accordance with the wishes of the Hawaiian government, arrangements have been made by which letters for the Sandwich Islands are dispatched in sealed packets by each mail-steamer from New-York, and conveyed through to Honolulu without being opened.

On all letters and newspapers for these islands, however, as well as to China, by this route, it is required that the United States postage to San Francisco be prepaid.

On the subject of the *Navy Department* we make use of the language of the President, which condenses the leading particulars of the report:

"The report from the Navy Department will inform you of the prosperous condition of the branch of public service committed to its charge. It presents to your consideration many topics and suggestions of which I ask your approval. It exhibits an unusual degree of activity in the operations of the department during the past year. Preparations for the Japan expedition, to which I have already alluded; the arrangements made for the exploration and survey of the China seas, the northern Pacific and Behring's Straits; the incipient measures taken towards a reconnoissance on the continent of Africa, eastward of Liberia; the preparation for an early examination of the tributaries of the river La Platte, which a recent decree of the provisional Chief of the Argentine Confederation has opened to navigation,—all these enter-

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prises, and the means by which they are proposed to be accomplished, have commanded my full approbation, and I have no doubt will be productive of most useful results.

"Two officers of the navy were heretofore instructed to explore the whole extent of the Amazon River, from the confines of Peru to its mouth. The return of one of them has placed in the possession of the government an interesting and valuable account of the character and resources of a country abounding in materials of commerce, and which, if opened to the industry of the world, will prove an inexhaustible fund of wealth. The report of this exploration will be communicated to you as soon as it is completed.

"Among other subjects offered to your notice by the Secretary of the Navy, I select for special commendation, in view of its connection with the interests of the navy, the plan submitted by him for the establishment of a permanent corps of seamen, and the suggestions he has presented for the re-organization of the Naval Academy.

"In reference to the first of these, I take occasion to say, I think it will greatly improve the efficiency of the service, and that I regard it as still more entitled to favor for the salutary influence it must exert upon the naval discipline, now greatly disturbed by the increasing spirit of insubordination, resulting from our present system.

"The plan proposed for the organization of the seamen, furnishes a judicious substitute for the law of September, 1850, abolishing corporeal punishment, and satisfactorily sustains the policy of that act, under conditions well adapted to maintain the authority of command, and the order and security of our ships. It is believed that any change which proposes permanently to dispense with this mode of punishment, should be preceded by a system of enlistment which shall supply the navy with seamen of the most meritorious class, whose good deportment and pride of character may preclude all occasion to resort to penalties of a harsh or degrading nature. The safety of a ship and crew is often dependent upon immediate obedience to a command, and the authority to enforce it must be equally ready.

"The arrest of a refractory seaman in such moments not only deprives the ship of indispensable aid, but imposes the necessity for double service on others, whose fidelity to their duties may be relied upon in such an emergency. The exposure to this increased and arduous labor, since the passage of the act of 1850, has already had, to a most observable and injurious extent, the effect of preventing the enlistment of the best seamen in the navy. The plan now suggested is designed to promote a condition of service in which this objection will no longer exist. The details of this plan may be established in great part, if not altogether, by the Executive, under the authority of existing laws; but I have thought it proper, in accordance with the suggestions of the Secretary of the Navy, to submit it to your approval.

"The establishment of a corps of apprentices for the navy, or boys to be enlisted until they become of age, and to be employed under such regulations as the Navy Department may devise, as proposed in the report, I cordially approve and commend to your consideration. I also concur in the suggestion that this system for the early training of seamen may be most usefully engrafted upon the service of our merchant marine.

"The other proportion of the report to which I have referred, a re-organization of the Naval Academy, I recommend to your attention as a project worthy of your encouragement and support. The valuable services already rendered by this institution entitles it to the continuance of your fostering care."

The expenditures of the Secretary of the Interior were, for 1853, $5,695,328 04, and for 1854, $4,921,025 71.

He states the quantity of *land* disposed of during the past year as follows: sold, 1,553,071; located under bounty warrants, 3,201,314; aggregate disposed of for all purposes, 13,115,175 acres.

The whole number of *pensioners* is now 18,868, exclusive of navy pensioners, 726 in number. Number on the rolls of Mexican war pensioners, 1,123.

We have extracted in another place from the census report, and shall complete the subject in consecutive numbers.

By reference to the Treasury Department, the cost of the publication of the sixth census was as follows:

To amount paid Blair & Rives for publishing 10,000 copies of statistical returns	$137,316	64
To amount paid Blair & Rives and Allen & Co. for 30,000 copies of compendium	24,773	86
Cost of binding	16,712	97
Aggregage cost of publication..	$178,803	47

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Lippincott & Co. now propose to publish 10,000 copies of the statistics of the seventh census, in two folio volumes of 1,000 pages each, on fine type and paper, well bound with Russia backs, for the aggregate sum of $49,500 dollars, being less than one-third of the amount paid for the publication of the sixth census.

The general principles of our *patent system* seem to have met with universal approbation, and to have been attended with beneficent results in practice. Since the organization of the office, in 1836, it has advanced with rapid strides. At that date, one "examining clerk" was enabled to make all the preliminary investigations which were required to ascertain whether the applicant was entitled to a patent; but such has been the increase of the business, that six principal examiners and as many assistants are not now able to keep pace with it. The number of models in the office on the 1st day of January, 1836, was 1,069. In the beginning of the year 1851 they had increased to 17,257, and at the close of the present year they will fall but little short of 23,000. If they should continue to increase in this proportion, making no allowance for the augmentation consequent on the increase of population, by the close of the present century they will amount to 150,000, and the whole of the present patent-office edifice will not be sufficient for their convenient display.

The *Secretary of War* states that 8,000 out of 11,000 officers and men on the rolls of the army, are employed in the defences of Oregon, California, New Mexico and Texas, and of emigrants to the two former. Texas, with the exception of a portion of the Rio Grande, has been exempted from Indian depredations. The outrages on the Rio Grande are attributed to the lawless expeditions of Caravajal, whose men, after his defeat, dispersed through the country, and resorted to plunder for subsistence. On the other hand, many of the inhabitants of Mexico either sought to avenge themselves for the wrongs inflicted on them by that adventurer and his followers, or found in his lawless proceedings a justification for their own, and retaliated on the peaceable inhabitants. The Indians in that vicinity availed themselves of the confusion and alarm consequent upon this state of things to renew their depredations. Thefts, robberies, and even assassinations were the consequence. Our troops, however, have finally succeeded in partially restoring quiet and peace. So long, however, as the species of border warfare, which has lately been carried on in that region, between the inhabitants of the two countries, continues, it will be difficult, if not impossible, with any number of troops, and with the strictest vigilance on the part of their officers, to prevent, on so extensive a frontier, a repetition of these disorders. In New Mexico the depredations of the Indians have been entirely arrested. The Navajos and the Apaches, the two most formidable tribes in all that region, have been completely overawed, and manifest every desire to be at peace with the whites. In consequence of frequent collisions between the Indians and the white inhabitants of California and Oregon, it was deemed advisable to send the 4th regiment of infantry to the Pacific, to replace the mounted riflemen that had been ordered thence to Texas. Intelligence has been recently received that the Yuma Indians, a bold and hostile tribe, occupying a portion of country on the Gila and Colorado rivers, whose inroads and depredations have been the source of frequent annoyance and alarm to the inhabitants both of our own territory and of the Mexican State of Sonora, have agreed to a peace.

The troops stationed on the frontier may justly be considered as in active service—a service, too, in which they are exposed to all the hardships and dangers of war, without its excitement to stimulate or its hopes of honorable distinction to sustain them.

What policy, however, it may be deemed proper to adopt in reference to the Indian tribes in Texas, California and Oregon, is a question only of humanity or temporary policy, as the period cannot be very remote when they will be swept before the resistless tide of emigration which continually flows towards those countries.

The case is different with regard to New Mexico. Her population, exclusive of wild Indians by the last census, was 61,000, and her real estate valued at $2,700,000. To protect this small population, we are compelled to maintain a large military force at an annual expense nearly equal to half the value of the whole real estate of the Territory. Would it not be better to induce the inhabitants to abandon a country which seems hardly fit for the habitation of civilized man, by remunerating them

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for their property in money or in lands situated in more favored regions?

Attention is next called to the state of our defences on the sea-coast, no appropriation having been made for fortifications by Congress in 1850. It is suggested that Congress adopt some mode of revising the plan for fortifications adopted by the Board of Engineers in 1816, which is now believed is on too extensive a scale.

In the mean time, however, there are a number of works which have been commenced, and are in various stages of advancement, but the prosecution of which is suspended for the want of necessary appropriations. Most of these works are highly important, being intended for the protection of our principal seaports and naval stations, viz.: Boston, New-York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Norfolk, Charleston, Savannah, Pensacola, Mobile and New-Orleans, or other points of scarcely less importance. These points, at whatever expense, should be rendered impregnable to any force brought against them. Appropriations to complete most of them, if not all, are strongly urged.

The works to protect New-Bedford and San Francisco, now both entirely defenceless, should be constructed; and the Board have suggested that a fortification at Sandy Hook, to protect the outer harbor of New-York is necessary.

One of the most important and responsible duties which have devolved on the Department during the present year is the execution of the works known as the river and harbor improvements.

The number of works for which appropriations were made by the act recently passed is about one hundred, and the sum appropriated about two millions and a quarter. The appropriations, however, will only in a few instances be sufficient to complete the works for which they were made. By far the greater number will require additional, and some of them very large additional, appropriations to complete them. It is to be presumed that, even if Congress should not see fit to continue the system and to provide for other works of a similar character, not included in the present act, they will at least finish the works that have been begun. The superintendence of the work has been confided to the two corps of engineers and topographical engineers, both of which are eminently qualified for this duty. The works on the Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico have been assigned to the corps of engineers, and those on the northern and western rivers to the corps of topographical engineers. It is believed that this arrangement will eminently conduce to the speedy and economical execution of the works.

The Secretary repeats his suggestions of last year:

First. That the Department be authorized to abolish such arsenals as are no longer needed, and are a source of useless expense.

Second. That an additional number of commissaries be authorized.

Third. That a retired list of the army be established, as a measure of justice, both to the officers that are disabled and to those that are not.

Fourth. That the distribution of arms among the militia of the States and Territories under the act of 1808, be made hereafter on the basis of the free white male inhabitants of age to bear arms, as shown by the latest census, instead of the official returns of the militia, which are frequently not furnished, and when furnished, are often inaccurate.

The following statistics of the late presidential election are worthy of preservation, and should be studied as a part of the civil and statistical history the country:

ELECTORAL VOTE.—For Scott: Vermont, 5; Massachusetts, 13; Kentucky, 12; Tennessee, 12; total, 42. For Pierce: Maine, 8; New-Hampshire, 5; Rhode Island, 4; Connecticut, 6; New-York, 35; New-Jersey, 7; Pennsylvania, 27; Delaware, 3; Maryland, 8; Virginia, 15; Alabama, 9; Louisiana, 6; Mississippi, 7; South Carolina, (legislature elects,) 8; Wisconsin, 5; Indiana, 13; Illinois, 11; Ohio, 23; Michigan, 6; North Carolina, 10; Georgia, 10; Texas, 4; California, 4; Florida, 3; Arkansas, 4; Missouri, 9; Iowa, 4; total, 212.

Jackson's (Dem.) majority in 1828, 95; in 1832, 152; Van Buren's, 1836, 46; Harrison's (Whig) in 1840, 174; Polk's (Dem.) in 1844, 65; Taylor's (Whig) in 1848, 36; Pierce's (Dem.) in 1852, 212,

Total popular vote in 1852, 2,923,394; to which, if the votes of counties not yet received, be added, there will be an aggregate vote of 3,000,000.

The abolition vote, from 292,828, has fallen down to about 150,000; and in 1844, was 62,692.

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	Scott.	Pierce.	Hale.
Maine	32,208	41,418	7,868
N. Hampshire	16,147	29,997	6,695
Vermont	22,173	13,044	8,621
Massachusetts	52,683	44,569	28,023**
Rhode Island	7,626	8,735	624
Connecticut	30,359	33,249	3,160
New-York	235,359	262,147	20,000††
New-Jersey	38,540	44,293	259
Pennsylvania	179,182	198,568	8,524
Delaware	6,294	6,319	62
Maryland	35,080	40,028	54
Virginia*	57,132	72,413	..
Alabama†	15,084	26,881	..
Louisiana	17,255	18,647	..
Mississippi	17,570	27,007	..
South Carolina	....	....	..
Wisconsin‡	20,478	30,446	8,505
Indiana	80,914	95,311	6,906
Illinois◊	32,505	47,742	10,000
Ohio	152,426	169,160	31,782
Michigan‖	33,879	42,142.	7,248
Kentucky	57,068	53,806	220
Tennessee	58,802	57,123	..
North Carolina	39,058	39,744	..
Georgia¶	15,798	33,888	..
Texas	—	6,000	..
Calif'ia. (est'd.)	—	1,500	..
Florida**	1,310	2,652	..
Arkansas	—	5,000	..
Missouri††	28,944	36,642	..
Iowa	—	2,500	..
	1,283,874	1,490,971	148,551
		1,283,874	
Pierce over Scott		207,097	

ART. IX.--INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

MOBILE AND OHIO ROAD — SOUTH CAROLINA ROAD — NEW-YORK AND OHIO ROAD — COLUMBUS AND OPELEIKA ROAD — CHARLESTON AND EAST TENNESSEE ROAD — NEW-ORLEANS AND PONTCHARTRAIN ROAD — VIRGINIA RAIL-ROAD—NEW-ORLEANS AND TEXAS ROAD.— CHARLESTON AND WILMINGTON ROAD — INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS OF SOUTH CAROLINA — TEXAS, RED RIVER AND PORT GIBSON ROADS — TEXAS RAIL-ROAD CONVENTION—GEORGIA RAIL-ROADS—MISSISSIPPI CENTRAL ROAD—SAVANNAH AND PENSACOLA ROAD—NEW-ORLEANS AND NASHVILLE ROAD.

THE resources relied upon for the construction of the Mobile and Ohio road are:

1. Tax on real estate in Mobile, 2 per cent. for 5 years	$1,100,000
2. Mississippi subscriptions, which reached in May, 1852	1,000,000
3. Tennessee subscriptions up to June, 1852	650,000
4. Sale of town site, 13 miles from Mobile	20,000
5. Estimated value of another site	30,000
	$2,800,000
Add 33 miles finished, at a cost of	500,000
	$3,300,000

Additional county and individual subscriptions are expected in Mississippi, Tennessee and Kentucky, to swell the amount to $5,000,000, which is required for superstructure, exclusive of iron and machinery. For the purchase of this last, the following resources are relied upon:

1. Tennessee Bonds, as per act of legislature of that state	$956,000
Lands from government, 1 000,000 acres, worth, when road completed	3,000,000

The cost of iron is estimated at $3,800,000; machinery, $1,200,000; total, $5,000,000, which amount it is proposed to raise thus:

Tennessee bonds	$956,000
Rail-road bonds for 30 years	4,144,000

INCOME OF THE SOUTH CAROLINA RAIL-ROAD COMPANY.

	No. Pass.	Amount.	Total receipts; all sources.
For 1844	54,146	$176,591 58	532,869 95
For 1845	56,785	170,862 91	558,697 71
For 1846	64,136	189,644 87	589,081 52
For 1847	77,579	222,148 93	655,275 30
For 1848	75,149	221,363 59	800,073 54
For 1849	92,713	223,325 42	892,403 16
For 1850	117,351	272,383 37	912,720 25
For 1851	128,590	287,341 60	1,000,717 98

Comparative Statement of Products brought to Charleston by the South Carolina Rail-road.

Years	Bales Cotton	Barrels Flour	Bushels Grain	Barrels Trp'tine	Bales Md'ze	Live Stock
1844	186,638.	—	—	—	—	—
1845	197,657.	—	—	—	—	—
1846	186,271.	12,148.	2,369.	48.	—	—
1847	134,302.	19,043.	338,848.	3,189.	—	—
1848	274,364.	15,447.	203,485.	5,753.	—	—
1849	339,999.	1,507.	66,904.	13,919.	10,632.	6,242
1850	284,935.	125.	14,515.	9,033.	8,008.	5,859
1851	287,590.	520.	547.	4,198.	12,310.	4,179

We understand that a project is on foot, and is pressed with great earnestness by Eastern capitalists, as well as by many enterprising citizens of Ohio, to construct a line of railway from Olean, New-York, through Pennsylvania and Ohio, to connect with lines leading to Indiana and to Cincinnati, at some suitable point in Ohio. This track to con-

**Webster and Scattering, 1835.
† Partly estimated.
‡ Of three counties only the majority is included. All the counties are official except 5.
◊ And 2,217 for Troup.
‖ Incomplete. Pierce's majority in the state will exceed 11,000.
¶ The new counties in the Northern Peninsula not included.

** For Webster, 5,302; Union Democratic Ticket, 5,785. Troup, 126.
†† This is the vote of 87 counties, 15 to be heard from.
‡‡ Incomplete.
◊◊ Of many counties only the majorities are given. Four counties not heard from. Abolition vote partly estimated.

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nect with the New-York and Erie Road at Olean, and to be a six-foot track, so as to open an unbroken wide gauge from New-York to this city. The proposed line, as we understand it, passes down the Valley of the Alleghany, say to Warren, Pa., thence into Ohio by Warren and Ravenna, and on to intersect the Pennsylvania and Ohio road at Wooster or Mansfield, branching southwest to this city. Should this line strike Wooster or Loudonville, it will, probably, take the route through Mount Vernon, Delaware and Springfield in this direction, and will make a pretty direct route from Cincinnati to Olean.

It is expected that the rail-road from *Columbus, Ga.*, to *Opeleika*, will be completed by April, 1854. The road will cross the Chattahoochee a little above the city of Columbus, pass through the north common, and have its depot on the east common near that of the Muscogee road.

One of the most magnificent rail-road enterprises of the day is that which proposes to connect *Charleston through the Rabun Gap*, in the Blue Ridge Mountains, with *Knoxville* and *Chattanooga*, Tennessee, thus throwing upon that city all the public works of Tennessee, connecting with the Ohio or the Mississippi rivers. The portion of the road through Georgia is already chartered, and the directors believe they have the means for its successful completion. The North Carolina section is said to be equally secure. It will be met on the line by Tennessee, whose citizens, under charters and with aid from the State Treasury to the extent of $8,000 per mile, undertake the construction of two lines of road ; one to the Northeast, terminating at Knoxville, and the other in a Southwest direction, to Chattanooga. These connections will bring into immediate union with this road, almost the entire rail-road system of the West, the great Mississippi River, with its numerous and magnificent tributaries.

In the language of Henry Gourdin :

"At Knoxville, will be intercepted the Central Rail-road of Virginia, now in rapid progress of construction, passing through Lynchburg in the direction of Richmond ; and though it may be urged with propriety that the Southwestern travel, when this road shall be completed, will, to a considerable extent, pass over this route ; yet the rich tribute that the agriculture of that favored valley (embracing East Tennessee and Western Virginia) offers to commerce, will, assuredly, take the rail-roads leading to Charleston ; because, though for a traveler bound to New-York, it may be shorter to go by the way of Lynchburg and Richmond, (taking his departure from Knoxville,) than to come in a southwest direction to Charleston, and then to re-ascend to New-York, it is different with produce, for that seeks only the nearest Atlantic sea-port, and Charleston is nearer to their Valley than any other city on the Atlantic coast. On the other hand, will come the immense cotton crop of the Valley of the Tennessee River, between Chattanooga and the Muscle Shoals—a region of country which already sends to Charleston 50,000 bales of cotton per annum, every pound of which has been hitherto sold in the New-Orleans market, and this in defiance of the impediments offered to transportation by the inefficient condition of the Georgia State Rail-road. At Chattanooga, a junction will be formed with the Nashville Rail-road, now on the point of completion, under the vigorous administration of that able officer, V. K. Stevenson, Esq. From Nashville other roads will soon be constructed, stretching in various directions ; through Lexington to Cincinnati on one side—to Louisville, in Kentucky, in another ; and finally, to Cairo, in Illinois, through which will pass the great Central Illinois Rail-road, designed to connect Chicago, on the Lakes, with Mobile, on the Bay of Mexico. Before Cairo, mingle the waters of the Ohio, the Cumberland, the Tennessee, and the St. Louis with those of the Mississippi. These, and the rail-road to Nashville, and thence to Charleston, will secure to Cairo the most direct, and the shortest line of communication that can be made from any point in the Mississippi to any point on the Atlantic sea-coast. It is impossible to imagine a combination of circumstances more favorable for the concentration of a large share of the transportation of the countless productions of the immense valleys drained by these noble streams, than will then be possessed by Cairo ; and hardly less difficult to estimate the immense commerce that it must one day pour forth in the direction of Charleston. When to extraordinary, and almost unparalleled combination is finally added the Memphis and Chattanooga Rail-

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road, now in process of rapid construction, some conception may be formed of the value of the vast commerce, the prospective advantages of which, to the state, constitute the honorable incentive that has brought the petitioners before this legislature."

The only part of the road unprovided for, is that from the Georgia line to Anderson, South Carolina, which is already in connection with Charleston. The cost of this portion is set down at $2,500,000, which it is proposed to raise by state and city aid. Charleston is asked for $500,000, besides what she will give to the Blue Ridge Road in Georgia; and the state for the loan of $1,000,000, and a subscription of another $1,000,000.

We extract the concluding paragraph of the memorial of Mr. Gourdin, which presents the arguments for western trade in the strongest light in favor of Charleston, and against her competitors north and south. We have on previous occasions presented the New-Orleans, Mobile, Richmond and Baltimore arguments.

"It may be asked if the transportation of produce over this road may be considered certain? If New-Orleans, with the advantage of its noble river, may not continue to attract the productions of these valleys to her port? New-Orleans will, perhaps, never be deprived of the largest share of a commerce so legitimately her own; but the declaration of her own citizens, and her newly projected railroads, running parallel with the Mississippi, show their own opinion on this question. It must be borne in mind, that in the competition with New-Orleans we enjoy a vast superiority in our position on the Atlantic coast. The great bulk of the produce that descends the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico, seeks the markets of Europe. The cotton that leaves Memphis, for example, and is destined for Manchester, begins its voyage by turning in the direction opposite to its natural course. Proceeding down the Mississippi to New-Orleans, it makes a voyage to that port of 800 miles; from New-Orleans around the Capes of Florida to Charleston, (which must be passed on the way to Liverpool,) is 1,000 miles; from Charleston to Liverpool is 3,000 miles; from Memphis to Liverpool by way of New-Orleans, 5,400 miles. From Memphis to Charleston by rail-road, is 700 miles; from Charleston to Liverpool, 3,000 miles; distance from Memphis by way of Charleston to Liverpool, 4,300 miles; making a difference in favor of Charleston of 1,100 miles. But as nearly all the cotton is shipped from New-Orleans in vessels that go there from English or northern ports empty, (making the voyage for the cotton freight only,) it follows that nearly twice 1,100 miles, or 2,100 miles of this navigation constitute an unnecessary charge upon the transportation of the cotton from this circuitous voyage. To this expense may be added the great peril of the voyage around the Capes of Florida, one of the most fatal coasts known to navigators. These burdens necessarily come off the price of cotton, and hence the reason, among others, why the price of cotton is almost invariably higher in Charleston than in the Gulf ports; a difference that will abundantly suffice to show the produce in this direction. All other productions, of course, come under the operation of the same principle. As an evidence of the opinion entertained elsewhere, of the capabilities of railroad transportation, I would cite the expectations entertained in Virginia, that cotton will be transported across their rail-roads on the way from Memphis to New-York, a distance of nearly 500 miles greater than that from Memphis to Charleston. In Louisville, Kentucky, the merchants have issued circulars, setting forth the claims of their town to the trade of Memphis and the vicinity, and pointing out the advantage of shipping cotton to Baltimore, Philadelphia and New-York, by river and rail-road *via* Louisville. The distance *via* Baltimore to the Atlantic Ocean by that route, is 1729 miles; and from Memphis to Charleston, by the Blue Ridge rail-road, will be 700 miles."

The following is the statement of Mr. Edgerton, president of the *New-Orleans and Pontchartrain Rail-road Company* for year ending 30th November, 1852:

Of the affairs of the Pontchartrain Rail-road Company, for the year ending 30th November, 1852:		
Assets available in 1853	$45,772	30
Liabilities to date, including wages	35,421	23
Surplus of assets	10,351	07
Estimated receipts of rail-road for 1853	110,000	00
Based upon the following data, to wit:		
Average receipts per annum from 1st December, 1840, to 1st December, 1850, ten years	$64,023	55
Receipts for year ending 30th November, 1851	80,207	65

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Receipts for year ending, 30th November, 1852	93,872 34	
Receipts with corresponding increase for 1853	110,000 00	
Rents, &c., for the year ending 30th November, 1853		5,000 00
Making total for the year ending 30th November, '53		125,351 07
Estimated current expenses for 1853, based upon the same expenses for the past two years	$57,000 00	
Add for contingencies	8,000 00	
		65,000 00
Leaving a surplus 30th November, 1853		60,351 07
Capital stock of the company 5,000 shares		500,000 00
Reduced by purchase 255 "		25,500 00
Balance stock for dividends 4,745 shares		474,500 00

The road and depots, locomotives, passenger cars, freight cars and harbor, are all now in first-rate order. The depots and wharves, and other dependencies of the company, are insured against fire to the extent of $79,000.

The receipts on the *Central Rail-road of Virginia* for the last year were $176,-485, an increase of $32,684 over last year. The net receipts were $74,902, nearly 6 per cent. on the capital.

As compared with the previous year the *Winchester and Potomac Rail-road* in their last report show:

Increase in annual revenue	$29,161 08
Increased value of whole concern by diminution of debt and stock	191,408 49
Increased value of property, other than road or real estate	26,826 09
Reconstruction of road	72,900 00
	$291,134 49

We learn through Mr. Garnett, the engineer, that the present capital of the *Virginia and Tennessee Rail-road Company* is $3,000,000, of which the state takes three-fifths, and only $75,000 are wanted to complete the capital. The whole cost of the road will be $4,500,000. The deficiency is to be raised by the issue of 6 per cent. coupon bonds, redeemable in 20 years, on the mortgage of the road. One million of dollars, it is thought, will be loaned by the state towards the purchase of iron. Whole length of road 204 miles. All the heavy work is finished—the grading of the first 72 miles and four-fifths of the next 63 miles. In a few months the entire bed will be ready to receive the superstructure as far as Wytheville, 135 miles from Lynchburg, and if the iron be ready it will be completed in 1853, and to the southwestern terminus in 1854. The cars are already running 58¾ miles. When this road shall reach the Tennessee line it will be 565 miles from Memphis, and will connect with the Tennessee Road to Knoxville, 130 miles now in rapid progress; the Georgia and Tennessee Road, towards Chattanooga, though leaving that road at Cleveland in order to make a more direct route than that by way of Dalton. (This road is now in operation, except 26 miles, next to Knoxville, which are under contract.) The route will then be 40 miles over the Chattanooga and Nashville Road, nearly completed, and then over the Charleston and Memphis Road, the balance of the distance, now under construction, with ample means, &c. At Cleveland the route connects with the road of Georgia and of New-Orleans, and on the completion of the Alabama and Tennessee Road from Selma to Rome and Dalton, the line will be as near as possible to an air line from New-Orleans to Washington City. On the road, 84 miles from Lynchburg, it is proposed to make a road towards the Ohio, which would bring Cincinnati within 596 miles from Richmond. But this is not essential to the plan and is opposed by other interests.

At Lynchburg the rail-road connects with a canal, of dimensions larger than the original Erie canal, which leads to tide-water at Richmond. It is 140 miles long, and has 500 feet of lockage. When the tide-water connection at Richmond is finished, as it certainly will be in the year 1854, boats loaded at Lynchburg may pass to the shipping at Norfolk. There is now a rail-road being constructed from Lynchburg, with branches to Richmond and Petersburg, being 122 miles to the former, and 120 miles to the latter. From Petersburg to Norfolk a rail-road 80 miles long is chartered. Petersburg is connected with City Point, her present shipping port for foreign vessels, by a rail-road nine miles in length.

Our neighbor of the Bulletin is authority for the following, and has based his statement upon those of Mr. B. H. Payne, agent of the *Opelousas Road.*

The following parishes have voted the following sums to aid in the work:—Natchitoches, $250,000; St. Landry, $116,000; Lafayette, $36,000; St. Martin, $104,000; Terrebonne, $140,000;

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Lafourche Interior, $100,000. Total $746,000.

The following parishes are expected to vote the following sums, and there is little doubt they will:—St. Mary, $157,000; Avoyelles, (private,) $75,000; De Soto, $100,000; Rapides, $260,000. Total, $582,000. Parish of Orleans, (right bank,) $75,000; the city of New-Orleans has voted $1,500,000: private subscriptions, after deducting tax subscription, $600,000. Grand total, $3,503,000. A little over three millions and a half of dollars voted and subscribed. This, it is desired to increase to four millions. It is proposed, also, to increase the capital stock of the company to $5,000,000, and application will be made to the state to take one-fifth, or one million of dollars. Such an amount will enable the directory to construct the main trunk road to Logansport, on the Sabine river, a distance of 324 miles, and to build the branch to the Arkansas line, on its way to St. Louis.

We look upon the building of this road as fully as necessary to the city as the Northern road. It will pass through a country of unrivaled natural advantages, and will open and foster a trade, the vastness and value of which, to this city, cannot now be calculated. We hail the progress made with unaffected gratification, and say, with all our heart, push on the good work, so auspiciously commenced and under way.

We observed in our last number that the construction of the *Manchester and Wilmington Rail-road* would lead to countervailing movements upon the part of Charleston. In the construction of the *Northeastern Road* that city should be actively employed. Its line would be from a point on the South Carolina Rail-road, near Charleston, crossing the Santee river near Maltessee Lake, approaching within a mile of Kingstree, thence to a terminus on the Manchester Road, two miles from James' Station. Length of road 103 miles; estimated cost $1,240,337. The following is the argument for the road:

The importance of the Northeastern Rail-road to Charleston, demands prompt action. At every point she is threatened with diversion of her trade and travel, which, unless counteracted by this, the only means within her power, must prove disastrous in the extreme. The Wilmington and Manchester Road will soon be completed, when the boat line to Wilmington will be discontinued. The Metropolitan mail will then be transferred to the Wilmington and Manchester Road, pass from Wilmington via Branchville to Augusta; leaving Charleston out of the great national mail route, and carrying with it the valuable and inseparable attendant—the travel. From that moment Charleston ceases to be the thoroughfare between the North and South, and becomes a mere way-mail station. It may not be amiss here to refer to the road from Pensacola to Brunswick, in Georgia—a work which has suddenly risen to our view, and it is destined to control the whole southern seaboard travel, the course of which being through Savannah, will pass thence, by the rail-road to Augusta, (now nearly completed,) where the traveler will meet the continuous line of rail-road, via Branchville to Wilmington—leaving Charleston entirely out of his route. But I proceed to considerations of a more direct and immediate concern. The Cheraw and Darlington Road, which is designed to connect Cheraw and its tributaries in North and South Carolina with the seaboard, will very soon be commenced, having its terminus at the Darlington depot, on the Wilmington and Manchester Road—the distance from which to Wilmington is 110 miles, with grades of fifteen feet and less to the mile. While from the same point to Charleston, via the Camden, Columbia and Hamburg Road, is 165 miles, with some grades as high as 30 feet. It follows then, obviously, that the trade of the Pee Dee section of the state must be lost to Charleston; for it could not bear the charges and delays of this circuitous transportation. That 40,000 bales of cotton, at least, and everything else that the country may produce, will go to Wilmington, while, for the same reason, the comparative cheapness of transportation, Wilmington will furnish all their supplies. To the argument that the bar off the Cape Fear is an insuperable obstacle to the advancement of Wilmington, and that she never can interfere with the trade of Charleston, we reply—that although large vessels cannot enter the river, the passage is perfectly safe, as is well known, for vessels of sufficient burthen, to make her a formidable rival in many branches of commerce.

The value of the real and personal

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estate interested in its construction, is estimated at ninety millions of dollars.

The aggregate population at 210,400 and both increasing rapidly.

The number of bales of cotton produced, is 78,000.

The number of barrels of naval stores may fairly be estimated at 100,000.

In the last annual message of Gov. Manning, we have these liberal views upon the *Internal Improvement System of South Carolina:*

"It gives me pleasure to inform you that the rail-roads of our state are rapidly progressing. The Columbia and Charlotte Rail-road, and the King's Mountain Road, are completed. Although heavy damages were sustained by the Greenville Rail-road from the late freshet, they will soon be repaired, and, under the energetic management of its president and directors, will ere long be completed. The Manchester road is also progressing rapidly. Already do we see the potent effects of these roads in developing the resources of the state, and springing into life the energies of the people. The prosperity which follows in their track is no longer problematical. Living witnesses of it are all around us. Yet this grand system, which is to bring wealth and prosperity to us, and energize into action resources which were heretofore dormant, has just begun. If we would realize their full effects, they must be extended, until the rich commerce of the mighty valleys of the West is poured into Charleston. This can easily be effected by pursuing a liberal and enlightened policy towards them—a policy worthy of the age in which we live. The golden opportunity to command this trade is within our reach. Charters have been granted by the several states through which it will pass for the Blue Ridge Road, which is to cross the Rabun Gap, and extend through Clayton and Franklin to Calhoun, where it will intersect the Knoxville and Dalton road. Through Knoxville a communication will be opened with Cincinnati, (as a charter has been granted by Tennessee for a road to the Kentucky line, and a company is formed in Kentucky to carry it on to Cincinnati.) A road is now in progress to connect Calhoun with Chattanooga. From Chattanooga to Memphis, a road has already been built, and the Chattanooga road connects it with Nashville. A road is also about to be made between Nashville and Cairo. Thus you will perceive, that if the Blue Ridge Road is built, commencing at Anderson Court House and extending to Calhoun, Charleston will be connected by a system of roads, not only with Cincinnati, but with Memphis and Cairo, two important points on the Mississippi river, and at a distance from each other equal to the entire breadth of Tennessee, and nearly one-third of Kentucky. All the immense trade which the Mississippi and its tributaries bring to this important point, together with that of the fertile regions through which these roads and their numerous feeders pass, must find its outlet through Charleston. At a single glance you must perceive the magnificent prospect it presents. It would be a suicidal policy in our state not to secure this gigantic commerce, now that it is within its reach. But to secure it, the legislature must subscribe liberally. So great are the advantages it presents, so great the prosperity it will bring, the state could well afford alone to build this only link which is now wanting in this mighty chain. But there is no call for this. Charleston, I am informed, will subscribe half a million, and even more, if necessary. Enough has already been subscribed in North Carolina to secure the charter of that state, and Tennessee, by her general system of liberality to her roads, gives $8,000 per mile. As deeply interested as all these states are in this grand scheme, none are so deeply so as South Carolina. I therefore recommend that you subscribe a million dollars to this road, or even more, if it be necessary to complete it. Even if the stock never paid a dollar of interest, it would be a judicious expenditure on the part of the legislature."

The subject of a rail-road from *Houston to Austin, in Texas,* is receiving much attention. The distance is 53 miles; and the committee, in their report, propose to raise the capital as follows:

"They believe that three hundred thousand dollars can be raised by subscription in Houston and parts of the country interested, payable in instalments, within twelve months after the 1st of January next. But suppose individual subscriptions should not exceed two hundred thousand dollars, they pro-

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pose that the city of Houston subscribe to two hundred thousand dollars of the stock, and issue her bonds for the amount, payable in fifteen years, with interest at the rate of six per cent. per annum, payable semi-annually at the city of New-York. That the city council provide in advance for the payment of the interest and the final redemption of the principal, thus:—Pledge twelve thousand dollars per annum of the wharfage revenue, (now exceeding that sum, and annually absorbed in the construction and repair of the city's turnpike, on the route of the proposed rail-road, and which will cease when this work is commenced,) to be set apart and remitted on 1st January and 1st July, to meet the interest; let it also provide that the dividends on the stock be annually invested as a sinking fund in good state or government stocks, and accumulate for the redemption of the principal, and further authorize the rail-road company to negotiate the bonds and pledge them to the purchasers as an additional security for the redemption of the principal and interest as aforesaid. With such a basis, these bonds would be negotiable in New-York, or any other market where money is abundant."

The *Ouachita Herald* says that the action of the Rail-road Convention, which assembled in this city on Monday last, as well as the action of the board of directors, was such as to inspire new confidence in the breast of every one with regard to the Mississippi, Ouachita, and Red River rail-road enterprise. The friends of the road have gone to work in earnest, with a fixed determination never to cease their efforts until the road is built. They have now effected a thorough and permanent organization, by the election of competent and trustworthy officers. The board of directory is composed of the very best men, (we speak for eleven of them, of course,) that could possibly have been selected on the line of the road. All of them are men possessed of good sound practical sense and of undoubted moral integrity. Most of them are men of wealth, and are large stockholders. With such men, in addition to the efficient agents appointed in every county, and a sufficient amount of money in the treasury to meet every contingency, what may we not expect? Why, that the road will be built—and built, too, though not in as short a time as it otherwise would be, whether Congress gives a foot of land or not.

In referring to the projected *rail-road from Port Gibson to Grand Gulf*, the *Port Gibson Herald* says:

We are gratified to find that the full amount of stock will soon be subscribed, and we look with confidence to the completion of this work by the next crop. Many of the larger subscribers have not yet come forward, but they are of those who can be relied upon. A deep interest seems to be felt by all persons in our vicinity, and we find a growing spirit among those who have small means to invest—they are coming forward freely, and we hope soon to be able to announce that an amount fully sufficient to complete the work has been subscribed. The large amount of cotton coming into Port Gibson this year surprises many who were not familiar with the extent of our business; and when we tell our readers that our cotton buyers purchase cotton from a distance of seventy-five miles in the interior, it will afford them good basis for forming an estimate of the extent of country to be added to our business; and, certainly, may we rely upon a very considerable increase of trade from all directions and sections of the country. Our streets are crowded daily with teams, sheds full of cotton, and ample means in the shape of "material aid," produce, dry goods, and everything to supply all demands.

It is proposed, in a few days, to organize a company by the election of directors.

The report of the *Central Rail-road of Georgia* furnishes the following statistics:—

Statement of the Number of Passengers transported from 1st December, 1851, to 1st December, 1852, on the Central Rail-road of Georgia.

Months	THROUGH. Up	THROUGH. Down	WAY. Up	WAY. Down
December	779	522	1,409	2,436
January	829	653	2,164	2,315
February	664	762	1,622	1,640
March	700	609	1,936	1,863
April	595	541	1,950	1,776
May	356	511	1,978	1,744
June	573	607	1,804	1,622
July	1,035	546	1,614	1,560
August	756	667	1,667	1,563
September	891	438	1,737	1,596
October	930	470	2,822	1,969
November	526	421	1,827	1,845
Total	8,630	6,747	22,530	21,929

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Statement of the Number of Bales of Cotton transported on the Central Rail-road of Georgia, from 1st December, 1851, to 1st December, 1852.

MONTHS.	THROUGH.	WAY.	TOTAL.
December	27,299	8,706	36,005
January	24,654	8,701	33,355
February	29,499	7,503	37,002
March	24,827	2,909	27,736
April	15,321	1,119	16,440
May	7,805	827	8,632
June	3,698	188	3,886
July	2,644	56	2,700
August	1,815	137	1,952
September	3,205	993	4,198
October	17,674	8,244	25,918
November	23,879	9,507	33,386
Total	182,320	48,890	231,210

Statement of the Earnings of the Road for the year just closed, compared with the previous one.

	1851	1852	Increase	Decrease
Up through freight	$247,134 16	$249,933 99	2,799 83	
Up way freight	78,265 20	78,217 16		48 04
Down through freight	202,011 72	348,404 03	146,392 31	
Down way freight	73,182 76	92,908 53	19,725 77	
Up through passage	38,219 85	36,473 41		1,746 44
Up way do.	27,954 82	38,918 70	10,963 88	
Down through do.	31,398 55	31,242 37		156 18
Down way do.	23,840 80	34,913 59	11,072 79	
United States Mail	26,200 00	34,496 50	8,296 50	
Total earnings	748,207 86	945,508 28	199,251 08	1,950 66
Decrease br't down			1,950 66	
Total increase	$111,433 00	182,390 00	197,300 42	
Bales cotton through	39,433 00	48,890 00	70,887 00	
" " way			9,457 00	
Total bales cotton	150,866 00	231,210 00	80,344 00	

Remarking upon this, the Savannah Republican continues:—

We have but just entered upon the fruition of the blessings which our system of rail-roads have produced. In the course of a little over a year there will be added to the present miles of traveled rail-way in Georgia, 137 miles. This addition will connect Savannah through the locomotive engine with Columbus, West Point, Americus, Eatonton, Washington, and Augusta, in addition to our present connections. *The crowning work is yet to come.* Let the southwestern road be extended to the junction of the Flint and Chattahoochee, and let the Wilkes county road be extended to Savannah River, in Elbert county. Then the surface of Georgia will present a *grand cross* of iron way, reaching from the northwest corner of the state to Savannah, in the southeastern divisions, and from Mount Vernon, the southwest corner, to Elbert county, in the northeastern division—Macon being the central point. How much money will it require *to do this great thing?* Not more than one million and a half of dollars.

Under the new administration of the *Western Rail-road of Georgia*, running into the State of Tennessee, the net profits have run up in eight months to $141,533 59. The road is being heavily ironed with T rails, and only fourteen miles remain to be re-ironed in this manner. New warehouses, depots, etc., are being constructed at Atlanta, Marietta, Chattanooga, Kingston, Calhoun, and Dalton.

The people of Mississippi are pressing their *great Central Road*, which is to extend from Canton, Miss., on the line of the New-Orleans and Nashville road to Jackson, Tennessee, there connecting with the Mobile and Ohio road, etc. The length of road in Mississippi will be 180 miles, a portion of which will be put under contract in April or May; and one million and a half of dollars have been subscribed in Mississippi to the work. The road runs through or near some of the richest counties in the state: Marshall, Lafayette, Yallabusha, Carroll, Holmes, Yazoo, Madison, Tippah, Pontotoc, Chickasaw, Choctaw, De Soto, Panola, Sun Flower, Tallahatchie, Washington, Issaquina, Leake, and Attala. The cost per mile is estimated as low as $12,500, total $2,250,000.

On the subject of the proposed *road from Savannah to Pensacola*, Mr. Hodgson, of the former city, has prepared an interesting paper:

The route from New-York to New-Orleans or California, through Savannah, has striking advantages over any other line, by sea or land, in time or distance.

The following tabular statement will exhibit a comparison of these routes:

1.—IN TIME, BY SAVANNAH:

From New-York to Savannah	55 hours
Savannah to Pensacola	12 "
Pensacola to Tehuantepec	72 "
Crossing the Isthmus	6 "
Isthmus to San Francisco	192 "
Equal to fourteen days	337

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2.—IN DISTANCE OF MILES:

New-York to Savannah	680 miles
Savannah to Pensacola	350 "
Pensacola to Tehuantepec	900 "
Crossing the Isthmus	130 "
Isthmus to San Francisco	2,300 "
	4,360 "

The route by sea, doubling Cape Florida, presents the following table:

1.—IN DISTANCE OR GEOGRAPHICAL MILES.

From New-York to Tehuantepec	2,300 miles.
Isthmus	130 "
Isthmus to San Francisco	2,300 "
	4,730 "

2.—IN TIME.

From New-York to Tehuantepec	192 hours.
Isthmus	6 "
Isthmus to San Francisco	192 "
	390 "

This comparison of the two routes by Savannah and Cape Florida, shows a difference in favor of the former in time, of 53 hours, or 2¼ days; in distance, of 390 miles.

But the advantages of the Savannah and Pensacola route are most strikingly exhibited in a line from New-York to New-Orleans.

DISTANCE.

New-York to New-Orleans, by sea	1,760 miles.
New-York to New-Orleans, by Savannah	1,170 "
Difference	590 "

TIME.

New-York to Savannah	55 hours.
Savannah to Pensacola	12 "
Pensacola to New-Orleans	12 "
	79 "
From New-York to New Orleans, by sea	144
Difference	65 "

It would be temerity to limit the power of science and mechanic art. But, at this day, the utmost capacity of steamships is three hundred miles a day. Hence the voyage from New-York cannot be made less than *six*, and generally in *seven* days.

So stands, for this generation, the pre-eminence of the Pensacola route. The future has possibilities for another race of men. Savannah, Columbus, Vicksburg, Paso del Norte and San Diego, may be their line of march. St. Louis, Independence, Utah and San Francisco, may be their central road. And, finally, on the parallel of "54° 40' or fight," they may reach the Pacific by a line of rail, on spheroids, not greatly longer than that now open from Savannah to Nashville.

From the address of the Florence Rail-road Convention, we learn that the valuation of property and amount of population on that part of the *New-Orleans and Nashville Rail-road* north of Jackson, Miss., is as follows (1850):

	Population.			*Assessed Value of Taxable Property.*			
TENNESSEE.	Whites	Blacks	Total Population	Real	Personal	Total Taxable Property	Manuf.
Davidson co.	23,658	15,023	38,881	$9,831,337	$4,507,459	$14,338,785	169
Williamson	14,267	12,934	27,001	3,865,299	3,512,262	7,377,561	54
Maury	16,760	12,760	29,520	3,809,139	3,047,247	6,856,386	112
Lawrence	8,135	1,185	9,320	666,732	348,688	1,015,420	43
Giles*	16,519	9,430	25,949	2,973,930	2,389,730	5,363,660	139
ALABAMA.							
Lauderdale	11,097	6,075	19,172	—	1,224,123	4,000,000	32
Franklin†	11,399	8,211	17,610	—	6,227,108	4,500,000	28
MISSISSIPPI.							
Itawamba	11,395	2,133	13,528	737,763	1,224,123	1,961,886	16
Monroe	9,417	11,755	21,172	2,245,179	6,227,108	8,472,287	13
Oktibbeha	4,309	4,862	9,171	740,944	2,519,870	3,260,814	13
Winston	5,178	2,778	7,956	520,997	1,547,006	2 058,003	18
Choctaw	8,420	2,982	11,402	645,801	1,674,253	2,320,054	17
Attala	7,578	3,421	10,999	598,706	1,655,049	2,253,755	44
Leake	3,982	1,551	5,533	396,453	875 278	1,271,691	4
Madison	4,328	13,845	18,173	2,267,243	7,728,391	9,995 634	10
Hinds‡	8,690	16,650	25,340			12,000,000	3
Total	165,332	125,595	290,927	29,299,512	37,256,424	67,055,936	715

*Giles and Lawrence counties are both included in this estimate; because it is inevitable that whichever of the two the road shall *not* pass through, it must and will be accommodated with a branch road out of the capital stock, the distance from Lawrenceburg to Pulaski being only eighteen miles.

† The values of taxable property of Lauderdale and Franklin are not taken from an official report, but the amounts affixed may be relied upon as accurate

‡ In the absence of the precise valuation of the taxable property of Hinds, it is supposed to be about $12,000,000 at least. In relation to the above table, it is to be observed that there is a residue of at least one-third of the entire property of each county not subject to taxation.

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ART. X.—AGRICULTURAL IMPROVEMENT AND PROGRESS.

TOBACCO TRADE OF VIRGINIA, MARYLAND AND THE WEST—RULES FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF NEGROES—CULTIVATION OF COTTON IN TRINIDAD—GRASSES FOR THE SOUTH—STRAWBERRY CULTURE.

In volume iii. of "Industrial Resources" will be found full statistics of the Tobacco Trade of America and the world. Those for Virginia, Baltimore, New-Orleans and New-York are now given in detail, which will complete the subject in every respect. We are indebted for them to a report to the Virginia State Agricultural Society, by Mr. Mordecai.

VIRGINIA.

Years.	Inspected. Hhds.	Foreign Export.—Leaf and stripe.	Stems.	Manufactured and shipped coastwise	Stock 1st Oct.
1841	56,146	34,445	6,074	22,010	8,719
1842	52,156	32,765	3,245	18,120	11,100
1843	56,788	36,236	2,000	18,880	13,420
1844	45,883	20,496	2,687	24,449	14,363
1845	51,126	17,471	2,182	24,890	21,873
1846	42,679	21,200	3,220	24,537	19,110
1847	51,726	16,560	5,488	36,149*	18,127
1848	36,725	13,256	4,030	24,954	15,979
1849	44 904	19,643	3,430	27,720	11,500
1850	41,950	10,560	4,501	28.276	14,450
1851	32,598	3,953	3,850	28,953	14,353
1852	51,806	13,771	5,019	38,853	13,535

The proportions inspected at the several markets for the last four years are as follows:

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.
Richmond	18,803	17,086	15,678	24,119
Petersburgh	9.085	9,521	7,220	10.489
Lynchburgh	10,465	7,968	5,810	10.700
Farmville	3,163	3,413	1,425	2,255
Clarksville	2,908	3,570	2,141	4,001
All other	507	392	324	242
	44,904	41,950	32,598	51,806

The foreign export was thus distributed in same years:

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.
Great Britain	9,667	4,992	1,908	5,416
Do for orders	551	—	—	—
France	3,267	1,682	850	3,558
Belgium	1,478	—	—	430
Holland	663	1,377	—	1,025
Bremen	1,045	703	314	1,432
Italy, &c.	2,972	1,816	881	1,910
	19,643	10,570	3,953	13,771

The export of 1851 is the smallest on record. The average export from 1840 to 1849, was 24,000 hhds., and in former years it was much larger; but it is now substituted by western tobacco, while the great mass of the crop of Virginia and North Carolina is manufactured at home.

The inspections of Virginia embrace the crop of North Carolina, which is nearly all brought to our markets.

In addition to the quantity inspected, there is probably equal to 7,000 or 8,000 hhds. manufactured from loose tobacco. Of this a large quantity is brought to our markets during the winter and spring, and 35,000 to 40,000 boxes, made chiefly from uninspected tobacco, are sent from the Roanoke country to Petersburg for shipment to northern markets, besides a large number of boxes sent from the same quarter by wagons to the southern and western interior, to supply retail dealers.

BALTIMORE INSPECTIONS.

Years.	Maryland.	Ohio.	Kentucky, &c.	Total.
1847	34,580	15,219	772	50,571
1848	23,490	9,702	703	33,906
1849	30,689	13,664	1,248	45,601
1850	27,085	13,965	783	41,833
1851.	25,013	16,798	931	42,742
Average.	28,171	13.869	887	42,930

EXPORTS OF TOBACCO FROM BALTIMORE.

Years.	Bremen.	Rotterdam.	Amsterdam.	France.	All other.
1847	22,967	7,819	11,388	9,413	1,895
1848	12,787	7,910	3,103	4,959	131
1849	18,821	13,783	8,725	9,562	1,033
1850	15,864	7,814	5,973	8,177	6,540
1851	12,654	9,694	4,154	2,327	5,292
Av'rge.	16,018	9,404	6,668	6,857	2,978

The Maryland hogsheads are much lighter than those of Virginia or western, weighing 600 to 900 against 1,100 to 1,400.

It will be seen by accompanying statements, that the great mass of the tobacco crops of Virginia and North Carolina is now manufactured at home, and from present indications nearly the whole will be thus absorbed in the course of a few years, as the consumption of chewing tobacco increases with the increase of

* This excess cannot be in the quantity manufactured. It may partly arise from shipments coastwise, for re-shipment to Europe, and partly from errors in stocks, but is otherwise unaccountable.

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population in the United States, and there is an annually increasing demand for it in the British possessions in America, Australia and elsewhere.—Practice makes our manufacturers perfect in the preparation of it, which is no simple operation. An immense quantity of licorice is used in the manufacture, and no small quantity of loaf-sugar, spices and essences. The several processes require a variety of machines and considerable manipulation. The prices paid by the manufacturers for peculiar qualities of tobacco far exceed those obtained for the article in any other market. While an exporter cannot afford to pay more than 6 to 10 cents per pound for good to fine leaf, a manufacturer will pay 15, 20, 25 and even 30 to 50 cents for such as best suits his purpose, but the great mass of "twists" and "lumps" is made from the cheaper and medium sorts.

NEW-ORLEANS RECEIPTS AND EXPORTS.

Years.	Receipts.	G. Britain	France.	N. Europe.	S. Europe.	Coastwise.	Total.
1843	92,509	27,437	11,645	21,618	7,536	21,655	89,891
1844	82,435	22,523	11,104	20,175	14,349	13,098	81,249
1845	71,493	12,553	9,013	19,051	11,029	17,033	68,679
1846	72,896	24,505	4,288	13,301	12,516	7,435	62,045
1847	55,588	9,695	3,497	8,018	17,849	11 317	50,376
1848	55,882	19,867	4,954	10,475	12.079	12,989	60.364
1849	52,335	14,017	10,640	7,039	10,347	10,853	52,896
1850	60,304	16,820	2,056	12,725	11,975	14,379	57,955
1851	64,030	13,223	4,182	9,393	13,859	13,844	54,501
1852	89,695	14,023	13,948	26,814	21,731	17,199	93,715

The following table of the receipts of Virginia manufactured tobacco in New-York and other places, will show the great extent and rapid increase of the business:

Years.	New-York.	Baltimore.
1843,	61,676 packages.	—
1844,	97,536 "	—
1845,	105,682 "	—
1846,	112,118 "	—
1847,	138,051 "	—
1848,	113,336 "	54,000 pkgs.
1849,	117,594 "	46,000 "
1850,	162,341 "	50,000 "
1851,	163,210 "	51,000 "

Philadelphia and Boston not ascertained.

Perhaps a portion of this increase in the *number* of packages may be owing to their diminished *size*.

Shipments are also made to various other ports, foreign and domestic. The establishments for the manufacture embrace some of the largest buildings in Richmond, Petersburg, Lynchburg, &c., and employ several thousand hands—free blacks and slaves, generally at high wages.

The inspection laws of Virginia, based on old colonial statutes, abound in absurdities, and those relating to tobacco, covering several pages of the code, might be advantageously condensed in a few simple requirements.

Although the purchaser buys by the sample, on his own judgment, the law requires the inspector to qualify the tobacco, as *"passed," "refused," "too high,"* and so to mark it in conspicuous letters on the cask in *four* places. The purchaser pays no attention to this, but frequently pays more for "refused" than for "passed," and the term "too high," which is not understood elsewhere, may frequently apply rather to the price than to the quality.

All that is now necessary is that the inspectors should be required to receive and book, to sample, to throw off wet or damaged tobacco, to cooper up, weigh, issue a receipt specifying marks, number and weight, and to deliver on demand.

But among the *wise* provisions of our inspection law, is one that requires the word *"Western"* to be marked on casks brought from that region. This is intended as a stigma, that it may not be mistaken for and degrade Virginia tobacco. We are constantly talking about extending canals and rail-roads to the Ohio and Mississippi, and in advance we pass a law to stigmatize the commodity which we wish to attract to our market.

Jealousy of merchants, so long characteristic of Virginians, and an inordinate disposition to favor and protect the planter, have influenced the legislation of this state at all times. The act imposing taxes for 1852-'3, may be referred to in illustration.

The following rules for the instruction of overseers, and the *Management of Negroes*, are by Mr. St. Geo. Cocke, one of the wealthiest and most intelligent planters of the Old Dominion. They

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are worthy the note of planters everywhere:

PLANTATION MANAGEMENT.—POLICE.

1st. It is strictly required of the manager that he rise at the dawn of day every morning; that he blow a horn for the assembling of the hands; require all hands to repair to a certain and fixed place in ten minutes after the blowing of the horn, and there himself see that all are present, or notice absentees; after which the hands will receive their orders and be started to their work under charge of the foreman. The stable will generally be the most convenient place for the assembling of all hands after morning call.

2nd. All sick negroes will be required to report to the manager at morning call, either in person, if able to do so, or through others, when themselves confined to the house.

3rd. Immediately after morning call, the manager will himself repair to the stable, together with the ploughmen, and see to the proper feeding, cleaning, and gearing of the horses. He will also see to the proper feeding and care of the stock at the farm-yard.

4th. As soon as the horses and stock have been fed and otherwise attended to, the manager will take his breakfast; and immediately after, he will visit and prescribe for the sick, and then repair to the fields to look after the hands; and he will remain with them as constantly as possible during every day.

5th. The sick should be visited not only every morning immediately after breakfast, but at such other times of the day and night as cases may require. Suitable medicine, diet, and other treatment, be prescribed, to be administered by the nurse; or in more critical cases, the physician should be sent for. An intelligent and otherwise suitable woman will be appointed as a nurse upon each plantation, who will administer medicine and otherwise attend upon the sick.

6th. There will be stated hours for the negroes to breakfast and dine, and those hours must be regularly observed. Breakfast will be at eight o'clock, and dinner at one o'clock. There will be a woman to cook for the hands, and she must be required to serve the meals regularly at those hours. The manager will frequently inspect the meals as they are brought by the cook, see that they have been properly prepared, and that vegetables be at all times served with the meat and bread.

7th. The manager will, every Sunday morning after breakfast, visit and inspect every quarter, see that the houses and yards are kept clean and in order, and that the families are dressed in clean clothes.

8th. Comfortable and ample quarters will be provided for the negroes. Each family will have a separate room with fireplace, to be furnished with beds, bedsteads, and blankets, according to the size of the family; each room will, also, be furnished with a table, chairs, or benches, and chest for the clothes, a few tin plates and cans, a small iron pot for cooking, &c.

9th. The clothing to be furnished each year will be as follows:—

To each man and boy, 1 woolen coat, 1 pair do. pants, 1 pair do. socks, 1 shirt, 1 pair shoes, 1 wool hat, and a blanket every second year, to be given 15th November. 1 shirt, 1 pair cotton pants, 1 straw hat, 1 pair shoes, to be given 1st June.

To each woman and girl, 1 woolen frock, and to those who work in the field 1 woolen cape, 1 cotton shift, 1 pair stockings, 1 pair shoes, 1 cotton head handkerchief, 1 summer suit of frock and shift, a blanket every second year, and to women with more than one child, 2 blankets every second year.

To children under 10 years of age, 1 winter and summer suit each.

10th. Provisions will be issued weekly as follows:—

Field Hands.—To each man, three and a half pounds bacon, and one and a half pecks meal. To each woman, girl, and boy, two and a half pounds bacon, and one peck meal.

In-Door Hands.—To each man and boy, two pounds bacon, and one peck corn meal. To each woman and girl, two pounds bacon, and one peck corn meal. To each child over two years and under ten years, one pound bacon, and half a peck of corn meal.

To the above will be added milk, butter-milk, and molasses, at intervals, and at all times vegetables, and fresh meat occasionally.

11th. As much of the clothing must be made on the plantation as possible, wool and cotton should be grown in sufficient quantities for this purpose, and the women having young children be

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required to spin and weave the same, and the managers' wives will be expected to give particular attention to this department, so essential to economical management.

12th. A vegetable or kitchen garden will be established and well cultivated, so that there may be, at all seasons, an abundance of wholesome and nutritious vegetables for the negroes, such as cabbages, potatoes, turnips, beets, peas, beans, pumpkins, &c.

13th. A horn will be sounded every night at nine o'clock, after every negro will be required to be at his quarters, and to retire to rest; and that this rule may be strictly enforced, the manager will frequently, but at irregular and unexpected hours of the night, visit the quarters and see that all are present, or punish absentees.

14th. Each manager will do well to organize in his neighborhood, whenever practicable, patrol parties, in order to detect and punish irregularities of the negroes, which are generally committed at night. But lest any patrol party visit his plantation without apprising him of their intention, he will order the negroes to report to him every such visit, and he will promptly, upon receiving such report, join the patrol party, and see that they strictly conform to the law whilst on his plantation, and abstain from committing any abuse.

In a late number of the Manchester Guardian appears a paper upon the *Cultivation of Cotton in Trinidad*, in which the author, whilst he admits the appropriateness of climate, considers the present free negro population of the island as untirely unfit for any profitable industry, and proposes to obtain laborers from Barbadoes and from the United States. He says:

The failure of Mr. Walkinshaw's experiment does not determine the question of the policy and feasibility of establishing cotton growth to any desired extent in the island. From Point Galeota to Point Icacos, that is to say, the southern coast of this island (nineteen-twentieths of which are, at the present moment, in the hands of the crown) presents a cotton field of seventy-five miles, along the windings of the coast, in length, varied by a breadth of from one to six miles — say three miles — of the finest cotton land in the known world. Throughout its entire breadth, the lands are sheltered from the northern winds by our southern chain of mountains; and on the spot already exists every necessary for buildings. The only drawback that exists to its occupation would be the difficulty of reaching it in the present unopened state of the country; but as the attention of the government is already seriously directed towards making a road from San Fernando to the mission of Savannah Grande, it would not be a very gigantic undertaking to connect the spot where they terminate their labors with Moronga; and so connected, the whole seaboard would then be "come-at-able" with ease. Another apparent, but not real, disadvantage of this locality is, that it is almost destitute of population. I say this is not really a disadvantage; because if sugar is still to continue the staple of this colony, it would be impolitic to trespass on the present laboring population for a supply; in fact, the planters want twice the quantity they now have. But even supposing this population available to the cotton grower, I much question the policy of using it. Our peasantry is decidedly the most apathetic and lazy in the world, and, more than all, they are not only unskilled, but manifest a decided objection to the proper use of agricultural implements. Hoe husbandry, and hoe husbandry alone, is their forte; and I am of opinion that, although the young may hereafter be convinced of the utility of implement assistance, you will never get the adult population to adopt it. Now, without implemental husbandry, to grow cotton at a paying rate *anywhere* would be impossible, simply because it would have to compete with the implementary husbandry of other places—and there is no doubt of the result of such a competition: and hence, I contend that, even if available, it would be impolitic to employ our present population, lazy and unskilled as it undoubtedly is, where nothing but energy and intelligence can hope for success; and I view the isolation of our southern coast as an advantage to any cotton-growing undertaking, inasmuch as the population brought to work the soil would stand less chance of the contaminating influence of our most inferior peasantry. The people in the northern section of the United States would be much less adapted for such a cultivation than even our own population; but a finer peasantry, skilled in the most improved agricul-

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tural implements, than the colored population of the slave states, are not to be found; and although they decidedly refused to go to Trinidad as the serfs of the sugar planter, they were ready to migrate, to a considerable number, if placed in a position of being independent of the whim and caprice, to say nothing else, of our proprietors and their managers.

I took some pains to ascertain their feelings with regard to a migration to Trinidad, as cotton growers, and am well satisfied that arrangements might be made with them to move in large numbers—in fact, I had several propositions from them to that effect; and at a public meeting at Baltimore, they carried a resolution, requesting me to act as their agent here, to obtain them some concessions from the colonial government to this end; and I think that a comparatively small capital would annually command an immensely increasing population, engaged in cotton growth in this island.

The *Cultivation of Grasses* should receive at the south much more attention than it has in the past. The support of stock from the crib or granary, is an expensive affair. We cannot expect northern grasses to thrive among us, but should adopt those of southern latitudes. Dr. Withers, of Alabama, has sent us a paper in which he recommends the *Guinea Grass* as altogether adapted to our wants:

"It is true, that it does not flourish in perpetual verdure here, as it does in Jamaica, but it grows luxuriantly for eight months in the year—and at a time when almost all our other artificial grasses are parched up by the heat of the sun. Being a native of the tropics, it rejoices in the genial heat of the summer's sun. Springing up in our climate with the first harbingers of spring, it bears repeated mowings till the chilling frosts of the fall. As is known to all of us, we had on the 7th April this year a severe freeze, which destroyed much of our corn, and all the cotton which was then growing. The Guinea grass was at that time high enough to mow, but it was killed nearly to the ground. Subsequently, the location on which it was grown was entirely overflowed, by the unprecedentedly high freshet at so late a season as the first of May, and remained upwards of a week under the water from the river; yet it has already yielded us a fine crop of grass, and is now very nearly ready for a second mowing. It is frequently cut five or six times in the course of one season, and yields a large crop of hay each time. During the last season, we measured a small lot in which it was growing, as accurately as we could by stepping it off, and found it to contain 1000 square yards, which is a little over one-fifth of an acre. After the grass which was cut off of it was sufficiently cured, we shocked it till it was dry enough to stack, and weighing an average shock, we found that the piece of ground had yielded 1,000 lbs. of hay; which, though not entirely cured, was sufficiently so to allow of its being safely stored in a house. This would make an acre yield nearly 5,000 lbs. at one cutting. This was the second or third cutting; and it yielded four crops, but none as heavy as the one we tried the experiment with. The soil in which it was grown was a deep sandy loam, highly manured, and originally rich. It is in vain to expect any land to yield so large a crop of any vegetable product, unless it is amply supplied with rich, stimulating manures.

"The method of propagating it is by the roots, which resemble very much the cane roots of the country, but more nearly the calamus root. In the West Indies they propagate it by seed; but in this country, as far as my experience extends, the seed do not vegetate. I see in some of the books, however, that it is said to be raised from seed, but that is not my experience with it. My original stock was brought from Virginia, by Gen. J. H. Cocke, and consisted of about a double handful. By bedding them in a rich loam, we observed roots enough in the season to plant about an acre during the next. As it does not propagate itself by seeds, and is not liable to be taken up and scattered by the birds of the air, the wheels of vehicles, or the hoofs of animals, it spreads very slowly, and may be entirely eradicated by cultivating the land; or more effectually by turning hogs on it in winter, as they are very fond of the roots, and go to a great depth to obtain them. It spreads, however, gradually into the adjoining lands, and should not be planted near a garden, or any place into which hogs cannot be turned, when you should wish to eradicate it.

"The method of planting is to lay off

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furrows about two feet apart, and drop a piece of the root about as long as your finger, at two feet distance in the furrow. This can be done at any time during the winter, and it must be covered deep enough to protect it from the cold. A slight working in the spring will give it the start of the weeds and grass, and it will soon root out every thing else. The land on which it grows should be top-dressed with manure every season; and when you perceive the grass is declining from getting too thick, or by exhausting the land, it should be well manured and deeply ploughed. I trench-ploughed mine a year or two since, with evident advantage. It is generally recommended to cut the grass for soiling, or for hay, when it is about two feet high. It is then very tender and succulent, and stock of any kind will leave the finest blade fodder to eat it."

In our advertising columns will be found a card from the editor of the "*Soil of the South*," offering to supply STRAWBERRY plants, in the culture of which he has obtained a very deserved celebrity. We recommend his method below to the attention of our readers, and trust that this delightful fruit will hereafter not be so rare among us. On another occasion we shall give the experience of Mr. Longworth, of Cincinnati, whose success has been recognized by the horticultural societies of the whole country.

"The secret of strawberry culture is, to cultivate for fruit, and not for vine or blossom. Much depends upon the locality of the strawberry bed. No tree or plant should be near it; the strawberry loves shade, but not a shade that sucks its very life-blood out. The lowest part of the garden, the bank of some little stream of water, are proper localities, and, where it is possible, select new land. As to the soil, our beds are on as poor pine land as gopher or salamander ever built into pyramids, and we believe it is pretty generally conceded now, within a circle of a few hundred miles, that we do *occasionally* have a strawberry. We do not know but a stiffer land may suit them better—but ours does well enough, and we are not disposed to act like that foolish healthy man, who 'was well, wished to be better, took medicine and died.' The strawberry may be transplanted any time from September until March. The plant, properly taken up, is very tenacious of life, and bears transplanting well.

"The ground designed for the strawberry bed should be plowed or spaded as deep as tools can well make it. If the soil is light and thin, a thick coat of swamp muck, or partially decomposed leaves, with leached or unleached ashes, will be fine to turn under. After the ground is pulverized and levelled, mark it off into rows two feet apart. Now plant eight rows of Hovey seedling and one of the early scarlet, two feet apart in the rows, and so continue until the bed is finished. We speak particularly of these two varieties, as we should consider it labor lost to cultivate a variety which only gives fruit three or four weeks in the season. And we have never found a finer fruit, in point of size and flavor, than the Hovey, and none finer flavored than the early scarlet. Care should be taken that the plants are put into the ground just as they came out of it—that is, with all their latterals spreading, and not all gathered together and crammed into a little hole. Now, if the object be to get a large number of plants for another year, keep them well worked with the hoe, and let the runners take root. The whole ground will be full by fall. But if fruit be the object, cover the whole surface of the ground with partially decomposed leaves or straw—and as the first runners begin to show themselves, take them off. Care must be used in taking off the runners; they should be cut, and not pulled off, as careless servants will ruin many plants. When the vine has once commenced fruiting, it will show but little disposition to run, as its whole effort is to make the fruit—particularly if the vine is not over-stimulated. It is not enough that the strawberry bed is in a moist, cool location—for if the ground is moist, the plants want water to set the fruit, and to swell the fruit when set. It is asserted by some English cultivators that the plant should not have water when in bloom, as it washes the pollen away. This may do for England, but it does not do here. We care not how much water they have when in bloom. If the season proves dry, we give water to set the fruit by artificial rain; and unless it rains twice a week, we give artificial rain to swell the fruit, and then we give artificial rain to form the next fruit stems, and so on. Fear not to give

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too much water—water morning and evening. If grass and weeds show themselves, use the hoe freely. After it is no longer an object to gather fruit, let the vines run and mat together. In the winter go through with the hoes, thinning out from twelve to eighteen inches, leaving the cut-up vines to decay where they were cut, and then cover the whole bed with leaves, straw, swamp-muck, &c., but use no animal manure. Let the proportions of male and female plants remain the same as when first planted. We are astonished that in the moister, colder latitudes of the North, they do not have strawberries from frost to frost again. The heavy frost the sixteenth of April, three years ago, took our strawberry grounds in full fruit. We made an early rise the next morning, and walked out with a long countenance, to look at the destruction. Trees, shrubs and plants were stiff in the cold embraces of *Old Jack.* Alas! the fruit was all gone. We strolled into the strawberry beds. The leaves cracked under our tread like glass. We picked a handful of large, shining, crimson berries, as solid as marble. Farewell, thought we, to strawberries for this season. But in fifteen days the beds were again crimson with the fruit, and the market wagon daily supplying the market, which, in the absence of all other fruit, brought fine prices. This demonstrates that the strawberry crop is the most certain fruit crop cultivated at the South, and, taken with its continuous bearing, certainly makes it the most valuable.

"We have frequent applications for strawberry seed. Strawberries will grow from the seed, but they do not produce their like. All the new varieties which are sold as choice varieties, have been hybridized. There have been many new seedlings produced from Hovey's seedling, hybridized with the greatest care; but as yet they bear no comparison to that "ne plus ultra" of all strawberries."

ART. XI.—COMMERCIAL PROGRESS—HOME AND FOREIGN.

COMMERCE OF SPAIN—LOUISIANA SHIP-BUILDING—COMMERCE OF MOBILE—STATISTICS OF SUGAR TRADE—COMMERCE OF CINCINNATI; OF CHARLESTON; OF SAVANNAH, ETC.—PROGRESS OF PITTSBURGH INDUSTRY—PHILADELPHIA AND NEW-YORK—GOLD TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN—REVENUE OF CANADA—LAKE TRADE—FREEDOM OF THE ST. LAWRENCE—AUSTRALIA—CHILI.

THE commerce of Spain appears to be increasing, and in 1851 it reached, for imports, 687,648,640 reals, (for the value of this currency see art. on Cuba in present number,) and for exports, 497,507,432 reals. Of the imports, 259,165 reals were from America, and of the exports, 190,592,803 were to America. The American shipping engaged in the trade with Spain and her colonies, is as follows:—

Entered	Vessels	Tonnage	Men and Boys
Spain on the Atlantic	21..	9,940..	391
" " Mediterranean..	68..	15,101..	599
Canaries	2..	309..	13
Manilla and Philippines	21..	9,993..	289
Cuba	1548..	355,545..	14,700
Porto Rico	294..	48,336..	2,217
Cleared.			
Spain on the Atlantic	40..	14,688..	513
" " Mediterranean..	41..	9,676..	376
Canaries	3..	753..	26
Manilla and Philippines	30..	15,134..	314
Cuba	1627..	361,732..	15,252
Porto Rico	231..	36,320..	1,675

An act has been passed by the legislature of LOUISIANA granting a bonus of $5 per ton for every vessel over 100 tons burthen, which may be built in the state of Louisiana, and $4 per ton on every steamer. The bonus should attract foreign capital to our midst, for ship-building, since we have all the materials abundantly at hand, and the act will only be in force for five years.

In our December number we presented some statistics of the commerce of MOBILE for 1851–1852, and have condensed the previous years in "Industrial Resources." For the last crop the average of prices was, in October, 6 to 9¼; November, 6 to 8; December, 6 to 8½; January, 6¼ to 8½; February, 6¼ to 8½; March, 6½ to 8¾; April, 6¼ to 9; May, 6 to 10½; June, 8 to 10½; average for season, 6½ to 9½; average 1850–1851, 8¾ to 12; 1850—10 to 12; 1849—5 to 7.

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COMPARATIVE EXPORTS OF STAVES FROM THE PORT OF MOBILE FOR TWO YEARS, TO DATE.

	1851-2.	1850-1.
Cuba		8,000
Mexico		—
Other ports	177,681	105,826
Costwise	50,800	246,953
Total	228,481	360,779

COMPARATIVE EXPORTS OF SAWED LUMBER FROM THE PORT OF MOBILE FOR TWO YEARS, TO DATE.

	1851-2.	1850-1.
Cuba	4,238,676	2,104,862
Mexico	79,272	268,523
Other ports	396,648	12,420
Coastwise	5,478,059	4,430,240
Total	10,189,655	6,816,054

The trade in Naval Stores, though only about four or five years old, has met with unprecedented success. Constant improvements are making in the manufacture of the various articles; the quality of spirits of turpentine is much better than at the commencement, and has commanded 40 cents per gallon for a medium article. Very little naval stores have been sold in this market. Most of the crude turpentine, and A No. 1 white rosin, was shipped to New-York, and the balance westward. The receipts and prices are as follows:—1,460 bbls. spirits turpentine, 40 cents per gallon: 799 crude do. $1 75 to $2 per bbl.; 482 do. pitch, $3 per bbl.; 258 do. tar, $2 per bbl.; 20 bbls. bright and varnish at 20 cents per gallon; and 3,019 bbls. rosin, $1 25 to 3 50 per bbl.

COMPARATIVE IMPORTS OF THE FOLLOWING STAPLE ARTICLES INTO THIS PORT FOR THREE YEARS.

	1851-2.	1850-1.	1849-50.
Bagging	17,012	30,402	24,901
Bale rope	16,585	30,926	22,460
Bacon	11,500	16,607	9,269
Coffee	28,538	25,236	18,928
Corn	83,380	98,086	79,038
Flour	74,329	95,054	70,570
Hay	26,852	27,143	23,189
Lard	22,481	20,021	10,562
Lime	31,027	23,745	19,322
Molasses	18,095	23,672	18,042
Oats	20,985	29,121	12,429
Potatoes	22,014	16,248	20,243
Pork	15,589	23,949	8,016
Rice	1,491	1,832	1,387
Salt	154,351	128,700	154,183
Sugar	6,083	6,634	7,760
Whisky	15,597	23,868	21,440
Candles			

In addition to the full statistics and historical sketches, etc., upon the subject of SUGAR, its manufacture, commerce, etc., which run through the volumes of the Review, and appear in the "Industrial Resources" complete, we append—

POUNDS OF RAW SUGAR IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES.

	Cuba	Brazil	West Indies	East Indies	Total Brown	White
1837	40,965,998	3,287,401	49,166,140	26,996,532	120,416,071	15,723,748
1838	55,624,855	7,885,067	66,093,202	9,597,781	139,200,705	14,678,238
1839	70,286,903	9,848,738	86,681,537	15,783,149	182,540,327	12,690,946
1840	48,127,706	5,413,316	45,576,480	8,838,531	107,155,033	12,934,552
1841	90,384,397	9,070,626	60,838,901	5,659,259	165,963,083	18,233,579
1842	67,586,332	6,822,217	68,179,055	12,328,234	155,414,946	16,464,290
1843	*31,628,319	1,915,115	31,475,613	4,515,284	69,434,331	1,098,025
1844	114,362,368	2,709,099	54,763,060	7,932,964	179 857,491	4,731,516
1845	51,699,108	6,258,288	46,571,976	6,532,720	111,967,404	1,162,674
1846	61,624,973	4,926,304	50,057,329	9,656,444	126,731,661	1,043,836
1847	169,274,024	6,896,447	45,366,660	3,642,895	226,683,261	9,196,106
1848	174,979,362	6,003,609	54,035,761	13,182,395	248,201,117	6,007,008
1849	179,754,020	9,516,004	56,710,138	7,835 323	253,815,495	5,103,741
1850	127,767 543	7,033,366	49,530,181	13,320,729	197,651,819	19,997,312
1851	275,327.497	14,557,699	62,883,757	10,768,908	364,537,861	4,786,437

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF REFINED SUGAR, U. S.

	Foreign	Domestic	Total exports	Imports	Excess exp.
1837	72,786	1,844,167	1,916,953	9.899	1,907,055
1838		2,610,649	2,610,649	4,556	2,606,093
1839	136,191	4,781,723	4,918,915	57,751	4,861,164
1840	74,674	10,741,648	10,816,822	1,682	10,814,640
1841	3,033	13,435,084	13,438,117	68,333	13,369,784
1842	1,320,181	3,430,346	4,750,527	1,985,319	2,765,208
1843	157,700	598,884	756,584	699,090	57,594
1844	1,679,410	1,671,187	3,350,517	2,215,517	1,185,000
1845	1,840,909	1,997,692	3,838,901	2,044,862	1,794,039
1846	910,263	4,128.512	5,038,775	253,379	5,785,396
1847	185,878	1,539,415	1,725.293	1,089,477	638,816
1848	439,220	3,370,773	3,817,993	2,121,628	1,696,365
1849	100	1,956,895	1,956,995	400,015	2,356,880
1850	286,078	2,786,022	3,072,100	796,217	2,275,883
1851	1,107,295	2,689,541	3,796,836	12,077,726	

* For nine months only.

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EXPORTS AND CONSUMPTION, U. S., IN POUNDS.

	Exports.	U. S. Consump.
1837	45,047,008	161,092,811
1838	17,254,524	201,624,719
1839	23,969,100	241,262,173
1840	41,125,648	194,764,937
1841	39,094,265	232,103,397
1842	18,604,814	243,274,422
1843	3,576,607	209,056,749
1844	6,324,954	278,264,053
1845	15,391,058	298,728,920
1846	27,715,733	287,959,764
1847	9,223,547	376,655,814
1848	19,570,352	474,637,773
1849	21,462,893	453,456,333
1850	20,097,870	445,474,361
1851	11,220,723	568,406,575

The number of arrivals and departures of steamers at CINCINNATI during the year ending August 31, 1852, will be found below:—

	Total Arrivals.	Departures.
September	250	240
October	270	248
November	374	336
December,	220	201
	Total Arrivals.	Departures.
January	159	236
February	343	334
March	419	401
April	349	343
May	361	364
June	331	328
July	314	298
August	283	282
	3,675	3,611
	Arrived from	Departed to
New-Orleans	219	326
Pittsburgh	574	498
St. Louis	218	241
Other ports	2,654	2,536

The commerce of Cincinnati for the same period showed a total of receipts of $24,715,313; including dry-goods, hardware, etc., the Editor of the Prices Current estimated the total at $40,000,000. Having published the statistics for previous years in our volumes, we add the following:—

DESTINATION OF SPECIFIED ARTICLES EXPORTED FROM THE PORT OF CINCINNATI DURING THE YEAR 1851-52, COMMENCING THE FIRST DAY OF SEPTEMBER, AND ENDING THE LAST OF AUGUST.

Commodities.	To New Orleans.	To other down river ports.	To up river ports.	Via canals and railways.	By flat-boats.
Beef, bbls	16,614	393	1,021	1,987	16
Beef, tcs	7,789	29	941	264	10
Butter, bbls	1,731	755	90	430	
Butter, firkins & kegs	25,045	4,551	648	1,151	1,049
Corn, sacks	7,398	2,364	38,331	3,138	1,320
Cheese	60,119	79,178	4,746	6,646	4,073
Candles	53,164	33,188	17,615	17,760	717
Cotton, bales	25	35	6,912	1,838	
Coffee, sacks	5	13,749	9,081	20,810	22
Flour, bbls	309,589	85,712	11,107	1,803	135,466
Iron, pieces	4,673	87,306	9,226	71,204	
Iron, bdls	738	21,598	2,464	11,568	66
Iron, tons	62	2,079	1,642	7,546	270
Lard, bbls	26,749	482	6,099	14,535	410
Lard, kegs	87,769	4,863	5,910	17,303	5,697
Lard oil, bbls	10,120	2,977	4,951	6,782	
Linseed oil	3,181	2,089	1,391	2,716	11
Molasses		4,294	25,154	19,418	
Pork, hhds	22,577	2,351	14,917	4,088	727
Pork, tcs	12,422	760	12,373	8,843	260
Pork, bbls	117,007	2,968	5,173	6,412	2,095
Pork, lbs	1,556,010	581,385	1,471,358	575,230	575,230
Soap, bxs	5,486	14,266	4,278	4,003	219
Sugar, hhds	6	2,005	8,144	10,205	
Whisky, bbls	148,848	46,736	46,736	8,520	27,440

IMPORTS INTO CINCINNATI FOR THE YEAR COMMENCING SEPTEMBER 1ST, 1851, AND ENDING AUGUST 31ST, 1852.

Apples, green	bbls	71,182	
Beef		1,609	
Beef	tcs	1,145	
Bagging	pcs	71	
Barley		89,994	
Beans		14,137	
Butter	bbls	10,203	
Butter	firk. & kegs	13,720	
Blooms	tons	4,036	
Bran, &c	sks	131,014	
Candles	bxs	653	
Corn	bush	653,788	
Corn meal		8,640	
Cheese	cks	46	
Cheese	bxs	241,753	
Cotton	bales	12,776	
Coffee	sks	95,732	
Codfish	drums	431	
Cooperage	pcs	135,118	
Eggs	bxs. bbls	10,544	
Flour	bbls	511,042	
Feathers	sks	6,716	
Fish, sund	bbls	20,076	
Fish	kegs & kits	1,075	
Fruit, dried	bush	24,847	
Grease	bbls	1,936	
Glass	bxs	44,004	
Glassware	pkgs	36,602	
Hemp	bdls. & bales	18,334	
Hides	loose	54,647	
Hides, green	lbs	54,905	
Hay	bales	9,270	
Herring	bxs	5,194	
Hogs	head	160,684	

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Hops	bales	1,591
Iron & steel	pcs	194,107
Iron & steel	bdls	54,078
Iron & steel	tons	10,111
Lead	pigs	54,773
Lard	kegs	32,283
Leather	bdls	11,384
Lemons	bxs	4,434
Lime	bbls	64,817
Liquors	hhds. & tcs	3,162
Merchandise and sund.	pks	458,703
Merchandise and sund.	tons	1,958
Molasses	bbls	93,132
Malt	bush	33,220
Nails	kegs	64,189
Oil	bbls	8,305
Oranges	bxs. & bbls	4,547
Oakum	bales	1,843
Oats	bush	197,868
Oil-cake	lbs	247,400
Pork and bacon	hhds	10,333
Pork and bacon	tcs	1,987
Pork and bacon	bbls	22,501
Pork in bulk	lbs	16,532,884
Potatoes	bbls	20,739
Pig metal	tons	22,605
Pimento and pepper	bags	1,425
Rye	bush	58,317
Rosin, &c	bbls	14,184
Rope, twine, &c		3,203
Rice	tcs	3,782
Sugar	hhds	39,224
Sugar	bbls	15,237
Sugar	bxs	2,259
Seed, flax	bbls	48,074
Seed, grass		10,819
Seed, hemp		304
Salt	sks	91,312
Salt	bbls	58,020
Shot	kegs	1,688
Tea	pkgs	12.810
Tobacco	hhds	11,410
Tobacco	bales	1,996
Tobacco	bxs. & kegs	23,000
Tallow	bbls	5,930
Wines	bbls. & ¼ casks	4,482
Wines	baskets & boxes	8,322
Wheat	bush	377,037
Wool	bales	4,562
Whisky	bbls	272,788
Cotton yarn	pkgs	10,836
Cotton yarn	bales	167,002

The following steamboats were built at Cincinnati during the same period. The capacity of boats is said to exceed custom-house tonnage 100 per cent.:

Registered tonnage.—Steamers Sydonia, 235; Post Boy, 158; Wilcox, 260; General Pike, 367; Pearl, 184; R. H. Winslow, 335; J. H. Chenoweth, 310; Alabama, 298; Ruby, 145; Louisa, 394; Lewis Whiteman, 317; Cusseta, 201; J. P. Tweed, 315; Delaware, 501; R. M. Jones, 193; Moses Greenwood, 267; Major A. Harris, 103; D. J. Day, 212; James Robb, 593; L. M. Kennett, 598; Eliza, 349; Fanny Sparhawk, 200; Norma, 380; Col. Drennon, 125; Floating Palace, 231; White River, 100; Wash. McLean, 142. Barges.—Kate Hays, 240; Buckeye, 328; Cincinnatus, 224; Ion, 230; Joe Torrence, 211; Bob Green, 100. Total—8,896.

1850–51, No. 31	8,206
1849–50, No. 16	4,560
1848–49, No. 23	7,281
1847–48, No. 29	10,233
1846–47, No. 32	8,268
1845–46, No. 25	7,657

The Commerce of CHARLESTON, South Carolina, for the year ending 31st Aug., 1852, shows: exports cotton to Liverpool, 15,635 bales Sea Island, and 179,650 Upland; total exports cotton to Great Britain,—Upland, 191,585; to France, 40,577 Upland, and 3,373 Sea Island; to North of Europe, 16,240 Upland; to South of Europe, 22,025 Upland; total exports, Sea Island, 19,008 bales; Upland, 270,427—foreign. In addition, the exports to Boston were 19,901; Rhode Island, 715; New-York, 144,045; Philadelphia, 24,548; Baltimore, 10,336. Total coastwise, 199,605, and 3,305 Sea Island. Grand total exports, Sea Island. 32,313; Upland, 470,032.

There were 12,889 tierces rice exported at same time to Great Britain, 4,299 to France, 37,265 to North of Europe. Total export rice, foreign, 65,253; total export coastwise, 61,524, (17,274 being to New-Orleans and 21,506 to New-York.) Grand total export rice, 126,777 casks. The exports rough rice were 181,713 bushels to Great Britain, 18,538 to France, 210,289 to North of Europe—total, 410,540 bushels. Exports lumber to Great Britain, 642,389 feet; to France, 82,442; to all foreign ports, 4,676,076 feet. The exports rough rice coastwise, 52,050 bushels; the exports lumber coastwise, 13,624,000 feet, making total export lumber, 18,300.766 feet. For previous years see "Industrial Resources."

In the same period the exports from SAVANNAH were, cotton to foreign ports, 116,849 Upland and 7,605 Sea Island. Cotton to domestic ports, 224,958 Upland and 3,656 Sea Island. Grand total exports, Upland, 341,807 bales; Sea Island, 11,261.

EXPORTS RICE FROM SAVANNAH—CASKS.

1847–48	30,136	1843–44	28,543
1846–47	31,739	1842–43	26,263
1845–46	32,147	1841–42	22,065
1844–45	29,217	1840–41	23,587

EXPORTS LUMBER FROM SAVANNAH.

1847–48...feet	16,449,558	1843–44....feet	5,933,351
1846–47	10,731,388	1842–43	7,519,550
1845–46	18,585,644	1841–42	8,390,400
1844–45	8,270,582	1840–41	14,275,200

For previous statistics see "Industrial Resources."

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We have received from Job B. Tyson, Esq., of PHILADELPHIA, a series of letters addressed to Mr. Consul Peter, contrasting in eloquent language, and with a great array of facts, the commerce of that city with the commerce of New-York, and tracing out the probable future of both. We shall publish these letters in the Review. They show the population to have been—

Years.	New-York.	Philadelphia.
1790	33,131	54,391
1800	60,489	81,009
1810	96,373	111,210
1820	123,706	137,097
1830	197,112	188,961
1840	312,710	258,037
1850	515,394	409,045

The following table shows the movements going on in GOLD in Great Britain:

MOVEMENTS OF NEW GOLD IN GREAT BRITAIN.

CALIFORNIA.—(*Gold first imported 21st June*, 1849.)

	Gold raised.	Imported.
1849	£6,000,000	£238,360
1850	12,000,000	698,590
1851	17,000,000	1,277,800
1852	8,000,000	1,290,645
Total	£43,000,000	£3,505,395

AUSTRALIA.—(*Gold first imported in October*, 1851.)

	Gold raised.	Imported.
1851	£1,000,000	£35,000
1852	3,800,000	3,713,000
Total	£4,800,000	£3,748,000

Aggregate total £47,800,000 £7,253,395

	Gold coined in G. Britain.	Coin drawn from Bank.
1849	£2,251,000	£1,337,000
1850	1,429,000	3,849,000
1851	4,540,000	5,147,000
1852 (nine months)	4,821,000	6,183,000
Total	13,041,000	15,516,000

Having frequently presented in our pages the statistics of CANADA, we insert the following on the subject of its revenues and expenditures, taken from official sources:

The revenue arises from the following items:

Customs	£703,700	14	0
Excise	20,180	13	8
Territorial	19,961	5	10
Light-house duty, C. W.	937	6	10
Bank impost	15,832	7	7
Militia fines, &c.	8	2	6
Fines, forfeitures and seizures	1,364	0	0
Casual	11,138	2	11
Law fee fund	4,052	12	2
Total	842,184	5	2

The following are items of expenditure:

Interest on debt	£223,561	14	3
Schedule A.	29,230	18	2
Schedule B.	33,547	8	9
Permanent charges by legislative enactment, C. E.	4,655	8	2
Permanent charges by legislative enactment, C. W.	10,573	0	0
Permanent charges by legislative enactment, United Canada	125,355	0	7
Charges under estimate, 1850	8,770	1	4
" " " 1852	125,972	14	5
Sinking fund	73,000	0	0
Total	£634,466	0	0

The following table shows the amount of duties collected at the chief lake towns in 1852 and 1851:

	1850-1.	1851-2.
Buffalo, N. Y.	$67,000	$91,000
Oswego, N. Y.	91,000	87,000
Sandusky, O.	20,000	82,000
Cleveland, O.	55,000	85,000
Plattsburgh, O.	49,000	64,000
Detroit, Mich.	28,000	34,000
Niagara, N. Y.	17,000	23,000
Ogdensburgh, N. Y.	20,000	21,000
Cape Vincent, N. Y.	6,000	19,000
Sackett's Harbor, N. Y.	6,000	19,000
Chicago, Ill.	2,000	11,000

The total of the above for 1850–1, amounts to $376,000; for 1851–2, to $542,000; an increase of $162,000, or about 44 per cent., in one year! The amount of duties collected at the less important ports on the lakes, is not given in the report.

There are, in all, in the United States, 103 ports of entry, in which the total duties of 1850–51 amounted to $48,-788,000; and in 1851–52, to $47,320,-326; thus showing, that while there was a large falling off in the *aggregate* amount of duties collected, there was an enormous increase in the duties paid at the lake ports.

The reader will find under the head of SOUTH AMERICA, in the "Industrial Resources," the early statistics and history of CHILI. The following table shows the exports and imports of the first six months in 1852, in duty-paid goods.

From	Imports.	Exports.
Argentine provinces	$482,277	$120
Belgium	86,343	1,382
Brazil	103,191	107,648
Bolivia	1.928	77,441
China	77,360	86,125
California	1,131.431	704,550
Central America	36,607	5,574
England	2,867,479	2,944,108
Ecuador	52,710	15,174
France	1,134,978	394,443
Germany	947,519	183,583
Holland	106,492	1,599
Mexico	7,808	4,145
New Grenada	470	233,805
Peru	506,860	795
Spain	96,546	17,348
Sardinia	36,995	8,497
Sandwich Islands	2,873	24.912
United States	781,022	163,440
Prussia	—	458
Denmark	—	1,142
Sweden and Norway	—	3,397
Uruguay	—	102,873

In the same period of 1851, the exports were $6,126,546; imports, $6,542,795.

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ART. XIII.—DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRY AND ENTERPRISE.

TALIAFERRO P. SHAFFNER, ESQ., OF KENTUCKY,

PRESIDENT NEW-ORLEANS AND ST. LOUIS TELEGRAPH COMPANY, ETC., ETC.

With a Portrait.

No. 28.

MR. SHAFFNER, though still a young man, scarcely thirty-one years of age, has performed an active and useful part in extending the character and influences of our great western country. His father was a native of Maryland, though from a stock which originally emigrated to Pennsylvania, and are known both in the Revolutionary and late war. His mother was a Virginian, of German origin. In 1835, being then in his thirteenth year, he accompanied a relative to St. Charles county, Missouri, and participated in the establishment of the town of Flint-hill, in that county, and was actively engaged in all the varieties of western forest life. In the store, driving the team, at the plow, with the axe, he toiled faithfully—enduring with patient and becoming fortitude the privations and wearying cares and labors of frontier life.

In the spring of 1838 he repaired to Louisville, Kentucky, and obtained a situation in a small clothing store, at the very *liberal* salary of $10 per month. His monthly profits amounting to the extraordinary sum total of *one dollar!* Not depressed by this seemingly insufficient encouragement, he was constant in his attention to the interests of his employer, and had the satisfaction, soon afterwards, of finding his assiduity rewarded with a liberal increase of remuneration. Thus passed the first year in his new occupation; the beginning of the next found him engaged in an extensive fancy silk-house, at a liberal salary.

During this period, from 1838 to 1840, he employed his nights (that others, similarly situated, gave to amusements and sometimes to more objectionable pleasures,) in constant and close study of the useful branches of education, thus making atonement for early disadvantages, and paving the way for future usefulness. Of a religious cast of thought, with a native instinct and dread of contact with vice, he avoided such evil company as youth is often prone to—the allurements of the wine-cup, the race-course, and the card-table—finding agreeable companionship among those who were calculated to inspire elevated thoughts and teach the true paths of happiness here and hereafter.

In the year 1840, Mr. Shaffner, having arrived at the age of eighteen, determined upon the study of the law. Permitting no idle time to elapse, he at once made the necessary arrangements, and entered the office of Samuel M. Semmes, Esq., of Cumberland, Maryland, an eminent jurist of that city. But he did not devote himself exclusively to Blackstone, Coke and Chitty. Under the especial instruction of the Principal of the Alleghany Academy, he applied himself to the perfection of those attainments which he had commenced under his own guidance, and which were to invest him with those advantages which were most essential aids in the development of his energetic character.

By way of relieving the monotony of close and steadfast application, Mr. Shaffner, in time of vacation, undertook pedestrian tours to neighboring states, visiting all the institutions of learning and other institutions of interest in the states, north, south and east. In these excursions he rendered himself familiar with the history and character, the statistics and people of every important town or city in the middle, eastern, and southern states. His topographical knowledge alone, has to him been invaluable, and his impressions of the whole eastern and southern portion of this great republic are almost as thorough and perfect as if they were the result of laborious and scientific surveys. His motto seems to have been: "What is worth understanding at all, is worth understanding well;" and consequently he has not been content with less than a thorough knowledge of all he has investigated.

Returning to Louisville in May, 1843, he commenced the practice of his profession; having made an office connection with Hon. Charles T. Flusser, a gentleman of learning and ability, of the most fascinating and enlarged conversational and social qualities, but utterly disinclined to the drudgery and labor of professional duty.

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The position of the young barrister was trying in the extreme. Without money, or connexions, which are more valuable than money, he found the means of success most difficult of attainment.

Notwithstanding many difficulties, through the kind offices of Dr. Samuel Griffith, he was enabled to continue the practice of his profession; and, while he was perfecting his knowledge of the science of law, materially advanced his knowledge of its forms and practical ethics.

In 1844, he was selected to act as editor of the leading publication of the Order of Odd Fellows, issued in Baltimore. Having attained to the highest grade of office, and being one of the most prominent members in the United States, he brought to the magazine great influence and increased patronage. His efforts were generally sustained by the popular opinion of the members of that institution, and his decisions upon questions of the laws of the Order are referred to even at this day as authority, and many of them are blended in the codes of the states.

Being also an eminent brother of the Masonic fraternity, and of the Order of Knights-Templar, etc., he was selected to edit one of the official organs of that institution, in 1845; and the productions of his pen, numerous, and elucidating various subjects, were received with peculiar favor wherever read. They were always distinguished by manifestations of mature judgment and a depth of thought, indicating the labor of mind rather than the pruriency of fancy, or the ephemeral flittings of the imagination.

From 1842 to 1846 he was a liberal contributor to various literary publications, and during the greater part of the same period was an active correspondent of several of the leading papers of the day.

About the year 1844, he was elected Secretary of the Kentucky Historical Society, and was continued in the office through several successive years. Whilst conducting the correspondence of the society, his reports, containing a vast variety of interesting and valuable matter, were read with uncommon interest. Abstracts were made from them and diffused through the publications of the country.

In 1844, Mr. Shaffner was chosen Recording Secretary of the Home and Foreign Missionary Society of the Methodist Church South, of which church he has been an exemplary and worthy member for nearly twenty years.

Among the latest of Mr. Shaffner's literary labors, with the exception of his fragment contributions to the annuals and magazines, was the Kentucky Register, a duodecimo of statistics and general useful information, which appeared in 1847.*

His attention had become fixed upon that wonderful invention which conveys intelligence with the wings of lightning and outstrips the wind. Being at Baltimore during a considerable portion of 1844, he became interested in the progress of the line of electric telegraph then in course of construction by the government, between Washington and Baltimore, under the supervision of Professor Morse. He was completely charmed by it, and at once applied himself to its study, with the view of ultimately embarking in that business.

In 1847, Mr. Shaffner commenced active efforts for the extension of the telegraph to the West and South, but particularly the latter. Knowing the affinity between the two interests, he devoted every energy to bring about that connection. After many efforts, embarrassed by legal difficulties, and retarded by disputed rights between the patentees and Mr. O'Reilly, Mr. Shaffner connected himself with the latter, and commenced the line from Louisville to New-Orleans, with the view of using the House system of telegraphing upon it. After considerable progress had been made, south as well as east of Louisville, Mr. Shaffner became convinced that the House system was wholly useless and impracticable at that time, particularly in a southern climate, and he accordingly abandoned the enterprise, and proceeded to negotiate with the patentees of the Morse telegraph, and ultimately succeeded in securing the right, in conjunction with William Tanner, Esq., of Frankfort, Ky. The first Morse section, connecting the East with the West and the South, was constructed by these gentlemen, alongside of a rival line built at the same time by O'Reilly, south of Louisville.

After the completion of the first section of the New-Orleans and Ohio line, Mr. Shaffner proceeded to connect New-Orleans direct with St. Louis and the Great West, by a range through Nashville, Paducah and Cairo, which was completed in 1850. He associated with him, in this enterprise, Messrs. Thomas C. McAfee and Brother. Before the completion of this line, being a rival to O'Reilly, he took active steps to prevent that gentleman from extending his lines west of St. Louis. He associated with him Mr. Isaac M. Veitch, of St. Louis, a gentleman of great energy, and well suited for such an enterprise. Notwithstanding Mr. O'Reilly had a large force at work, erecting the line west of St. Louis, Mr.

* He had been appointed Commissioner for nearly all the states, and through his indefatigable exertions, laws were passed by several of the state legislatures for the better taking of depositions and acknowledgments of deeds.

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Shaffner visited all the leading towns on and near the Missouri River, and made addresses to the people, setting forth and explaining the claims of Morse, and convincing the public of the justness and propriety of remunerating the genius to which the country was indebted as having first conceived this grand invention. He was fortunate in procuring the almost entire and unanimous popular feeling and patronage in his favor, and consequently commenced the line forthwith. After a display of the most extraordinary energy by the O'Reilly agents, the field was abandoned by his workmen, and about one hundred miles of poles were left to storm and time, wholly useless and barren of wire.

Mr. Shaffner and his associate, Mr. Veitch, proceeded with their line until they reached the Territory of Nebraska, and having no authority to run their line upon the soil of the red man, crossed westward of the Missouri, and extended their enterprise some hundred miles in that direction, along the border of the territory to St. Joseph, beyond Fort Leavenworth. This line proves to be profitable, and is of great value and utility to the government, in relation to the Indian and army affairs.

After the completion of the St. Louis and New-Orleans line, Mr. Shaffner was elected three successive times by decisive majorities, president of that company, with exclusive control and power as to its management; and he continues in that office. His indefatigable efforts and consummate skill in conducting this line, won him the merited compliments of his friends, and excited the unqualified admiration of those who understood the perplexing nature of his position. Having to contend with the most remarkable tornadoes and floods, he had the ability and energy to overcome every difficulty, and this line, under his admirable management, bids fair to be one of the most profitable and successful lines in the West. To him alone the public is indebted for its continuation.

Mr. Shaffner, having devised a system of finance, superior to any used on the southern lines, and that a similar system might be realized by the New-Orleans and Ohio Company, was unanimously elected secretary of that important line, connecting New-Orleans with Louisville, Cincinnati, Wheeling and Pittsburgh. In May, 1852, a few days after his election, the O'Reilly or "People's Line" from New-Orleans to Louisville was united with the former, and thus another large range of nearly one thousand miles of telegraph was placed under his official supervision.

His efforts in his department of the management of this vast range of lines have proved eminently successful, and the fiscal affairs have been reduced to the most exact and discriminating system. Acting in concert with William Tanner, Esq., president, and J. D. Reid, Esq., superintendent, the most extensive combinations of lines in the world have been brought under the same harmonious management, and are found to work admirably together, promising a most abundant harvest of utility and its fair equivalent.

From having been one of the most prudent and energetic men of the age, Mr. Shaffner has not toiled in vain. In addition to the accumulation of other interests, he has become proprietor of the largest amount of telegraph capital in the western and southern country, and, except the patentees, doubtless the largest in the United States. This immense interest demands and receives his constant attention; and his whole time and undivided labors are devoted to the exclusive duties he owes as sole conductor of the management of the one line, and the co-operative services he most assiduously renders as secretary of the united lines. In both stations, he employs that prudent economy and untiring energy which have distinguished him in every station he has occupied; and the beneficial results arising therefrom are visible in the improved condition of the resources and revenues of the lines, as far as he controls.

It was remarked that Mr. Shaffner devoted his whole time to the fulfilment of his official undertakings. Perhaps such another instance of complete absorption in the performance of what he considers his duties, is not to be found. Without hesitation, he enters upon and prosecutes the most arduous and difficult, not to say hazardous, tasks that could be imposed. In the office, he is unremitting, and consequently performs an enormous amount of labor. But, when he deems it expedient, he is out upon the line, partaking of the toil and exposure, and braving the severest weather and the most perilous situations. His efforts to keep up the telegraphic connections between New-Orleans and St. Louis, with uninterrupted regularity, while the Ohio River was filled with floating ice, crushing and grating against the shores —constantly crossing, while steam navigation was entirely suspended—when the common ferries plied no more, and laborers and men, used to exposure, refused to encounter the hazardous enterprise, even for the certainty of rich reward—commanded the admiration of every beholder. He was not to be deterred by danger or severity of weather. Succeeding in securing the services of two of his men, he daily crossed the Ohio, battling with the floating ice, that momently threatened to crush his frail bark,

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and consign him and his companions to a watery grave. But providence smiled upon these unparalleled efforts to preserve a telegraphic connection; and he had the satisfaction of knowing, while his general health was unimpaired, that he had performed a great service, from which one of feeble temperament and less determination would have shrunk as a thing impracticable.

The acquaintance and connection of Mr. Shaffner with the Hon. Amos Kendall and Professor Morse, have been intimate and most agreeable to all parties. He has on all occasions, and with the earnest eloquence which distinguishes his conversations or public addresses, defended the rights of the latter to the profitable results of his great invention; and to his ability and persevering energy, much of the favorable feeling which exists throughout the community towards that desideratum is decidedly due.

As a financier, Mr. Shaffner has exhibited a prudence and foresight which have commanded the confidence of the many large banks and banking houses with which he has had business transactions. The revenues of the lines with which he is connected as president or secretary, amount to about $300,000 per annum, and this large sum comes under his special supervision in its disbursement. That it has been scanned with unwavering fidelity and consummate ability, none can for a moment doubt, who witness the unflinching and active zeal with which he pursues the difficult and intricate labors by which he is surrounded, and which would puzzle and confuse, if not overwhelm any one less methodical and less indefatigable. The system is to him a science, and he comprehends it in general and particular. There is nothing beyond the grasp of his quick perception, and no minutiæ too small to escape his penetration.

Mr. Shaffner is a young man, notwithstanding his active life has devolved the performance of more labors upon him, and caused him to encounter more vicissitudes than ordinarily fall to the lot of twice the number of years. Strictly temperate in his habits, undeviating in the performance of the duties which the laws of God and man inculcate, blest with all that can make home happy,* he can be pointed to as an example worthy of all imitation; and it is to be hoped his years of usefulness and happiness may be extended to "a green old age."

ART. XIII.—EDITORIAL MISCELLANIES.

SOUTH CAROLINA AND GEORGIA FAIRS—BOOK AND PERIODICAL NOTICES—ADDRESSES—REPORTS, ETC. ETC.

We promised a further notice of the Fair of the South Carolina Institute, which we had the pleasure of attending in November last at Charleston. The pleasing task has been discharged for us by our friend, Edwin Heriott, Esq., of Charleston, as follows:—

South Carolina Industrial Institute.—Among the associations at the South for the promotion of industrial pursuits, the South Carolina Institute for the encouragement of the mechanic and manufacturing arts, now holds a prominent position. Its high and noble objects have attracted the attention and secured the aid of the State Legislature, and the Association is busily engaged in providing funds for the erection of a large and commodious Exhibition Hall in Charleston. Having been a gratified visitor at all of the public Fairs of the Institute, I will employ a few spare moments in writing and condensing from published reports a brief account for the Review of the Fourth Annual Exhibition in November last.

The Fair of 1852 was opened on the evening of 16th November, at the temporary building erected on the Citadel Square.

Among the most prominent contributions was a steam-engine from the extensive manufactory of Messrs. Cameron, Mustard & Co., which, in the estimation of numerous practical judges, who have closely inspected it, is a fine model of handsome and substantial workmanship. It comes entire and unaided from the hands of young *Charleston mechanics.*

In the centre of the Hall, elevated upon a platform, stood specimens of ornamental cast-iron railing and floors, exquisitely worked, manufactured at great expense and labor, by Mr. C. Werner, of this city.

Near these, specimens of animals and birds, from the museum of the Charleston College, prepared by Professor F. S. Holmes, among them the celebrated head and horns of a gigantic moose—a great curiosity.

A cotton gin, manufactured by S. L. Burns, of St. Mary's, Ga.; a patent *excel-*

* In 1845, Mr. Shaffner was married to Miss Pratt, of Worcester, Massachusetts, among whose family connections are Mrs. Filmore, the Lelands, Stowes, etc.

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sior straw-cutter from Columbus, Ga., by E. T. TAYLOR & Co.

A number of pretty and delicate articles of embroidery and ornamental work, paintings, daguerreotypes, maps, &c.

In this department the ladies have been busy. That large *Quilt*, made by fairy fingers in Winnsboro', together with several smaller ones, and innumerable minute specimens of embroidery, millinery, and mantua-making, from Orangeburg, Barnwell, Charleston, Sumter, and other districts, would induce a "mis-woman-thrope" to confess that Eve's daughters do not always limit their industrial efforts to the destruction of piano-forte keys, and the perusal of love sonnets. Many of their contributions display *hard* WORK, as well as tact and ingenuity.

Two luscious-looking *lemons*, in a glass case, raised from a small tree in the garden of Miss P. BARKLEY, of Winnsboro', which bore twenty-six, and weighing, when plucked, one pound each—show that the horticultural spirit is up with the ladies of the upper districts.

A sweet little *Papier Mache*, made entirely and unassisted by two industrious young ladies of this city, was the admiration of every visitor at the fair.

Our southern mechanics ought to be encouraged. They are improving both in enteprise and inventive powers

The STRAW-CUTTER, exhibited by E. T. TAYLOR & Co., of Columbus, Ga., is quite a curiosity of its kind. This machine is remarkable for its strength and simplicity of construction; not easily put out of order, and works as rapidly as a hand can possibly feed it. The knives are of fine cast-steel, nineteen in number, with a cutting edge of thirty-seven and a half feet. They work against nothing but the material to be cut, and therefore do not wear out the machine, or soon become dull. They are readily sharpened in a few minutes without removing them from their places. These most useful instruments have been admired by all who have seen them, and have been awarded premiums at the fairs North and South, where they have been offered for competition. The manufacturers, Messrs. TAYLOR & Co., have extensive workshops in Columbus, where they make all their own materials for the machines constructed by them. The foreman of the establishment appears to be a gentleman of intelligence and practical knowledge.

Mr. THOMAS CARTER, of Laurens District, South Carolina, exhibited a Cotton Seed Planting Machine, which makes the trenches, drops the seed, and covers it up all at the same time—a valuable economizer of time and labor, which, in rural affairs, as in all other things, is a desideratum. Mr. A. MCLEISH, of this city, a substantially constructed Dray, on a large scale. The factories were rather slimly represented. We saw nothing from Graniteville or from the Paper Mills of our own state. Mr. JOSEPH WALKER contributed some good specimens of Printing and Wrapping Paper, from Fayetteville and Lincolnton, North Carolina. Mr. F. LYNCH, of Cheraw, made a very respectable exhibit of the fruits of his flourishing Shoe and Leather Factory in that town. Our neighbors of Christ Church and St. Andrew's Parishes and Greenville District, who acquitted themselves so handsomely in Broom Manufacturing last year, we do not find among the representatives of Home Industry at the fair this year.

The South Carolina Rope Manufactory, (PAINE & LUCAS, agents,) was represented by two substantial coils of that useful article. Good judges who have examined it, say "they'll be *hanged*" if it is not as good an article as can be got from Kentucky. The good "Old North State" sent us several bales of cloth from her manufactories.

Hats of home manufacture, contributed by Messrs. DIBBLE & HAWLEY. The first-named gentleman has been engaged in the hat trade in this city for many years. Mr. HAWLEY'S establishment in Columbia is on a considerable scale. The hats exhibited by him at the fair of last year were very highly spoken of, and maintained a high standing in the distribution of awards. With the exception of one or two materials which cannot be procured here, the whole fabric, shaping, polishing and finishing of these hats, are executed over his store in Columbia. We can testify to this fact, having stood by and witnessed a portion of the operation in several of its stages, in the hands of the workmen. People are loth to believe that such things can be manufactured at home, and many insist that all the materials used in making hats as well as some other things, are brought from the North, and merely brushed up for display on their arrival here. But an inspection of the operation, which can be obtained either in Columbia or this city, will be sufficient to dispel any such incredulity.

Conspicuous among the specimens of the fine arts was Mr. S. N. CARVALHO'S original painting of the Intercession of Moses for Israel. The subject is from Exodus, ch. 32, 7 to 15 vs.: "And the Lord said unto Moses, go get ye down from the Mount, thy people have corrupted themselves—they have made themselves a molten calf, and have sacrificed to it, and have worshiped it. Now, therefore, let me alone, that my wrath may wax hot against them, and that I may consume them. And Moses besought

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the Lord his God, and implored him to turn away his fierce wrath from his people, Israel. And the Lord bethought him of the evil he was about to do unto them. And Moses turned and went down from the Mount." Moses is represented standing with one hand raised to heaven, the other pointing to Israel, on the plain below, just visible through the rising clouds of thick smoke, with which the Mount is surrounded. A back view of the figure is given, which is draped in white. The thick clouds are all below him; he is supposed to be on the summit of Sinai, between earth and heaven. The two tables of the testimony are resting at his feet; they are written correctly, we are told, in the original Hebrew. He is barefoot, as he stands on holy ground, and also by express command. The Jews, when they approach the sanctuary on certain occasions, take off their shoes—indicating that they leave all earthly thoughts behind them. No better arrangement of the figure could have been chosen to illustrate correctly the text; as immediately afterwards, (Exodus 32, 15,) Moses turned and went down from the Mount. His drapery is white, emblematic of the purity of his motives. He is in the full vigor of life, with dark hair and beard, in opposition to the general manner of rendering this difficult subject, which is generally with white beard, and as an old man. The text (Deuteronomy) says that at 120 years, Moses was in the full vigor of life, and eye undimmed.

A novelty in Daguerreotyping was shown in the miniatures of Mr. S. CARPENTER, of Camden, taken by *electric action*. They exhibit no perfection in delineation, but for the present stage of the art, are remarkable, and worthy of especial attention from the curious in such matters. The same gentleman contributed a number of valuable specimens of *electro-gilding* on steel, and *electro plating* German silver.

Dr. W. H. FORD, one of our young fellow-citizens, contributed two or three drawings, executed with the pen very skilfully. Mr. J. WINDSOR, of Columbia, a Topographical Map, prepared with excessive minuteness, and evidently with indomitable labor and patience. Messrs. OSBORN, COOK & GLEN, of this city, an extensive Gallery of Daguerreotype Miniatures. Mr. P. H. HAMMERSKOLD, a number of architectural designs—among others, a plan for a new State House at Columbia. Mr. J. A. PELOT, of this city, a most exquisite collection of Visiting, Wedding and Invitation Cards, *written* in perfect imitation of the finest engraving, and immeasurably superior to any thing of the kind we have ever seen offered here by transient professors of this difficult and beautiful art. The illusion is so complete as to deceive the majority of passers by, who almost invariably mistake it for engraving. This collection embraces every conceivable style of plain and ornamental chirography, evincing great proficiency in the artist.

The representation in needlework of Warwick Castle, very like a real painting, attracted general notice. Professor SHEPPARD's models of the Koh-i-Noor and pendants, in glass; Mr. HAMMERSKOLD's architectural plan for the new State House at Columbia; Mr. PELOT's Urn, containing in the compass of little more than an inch, the Creed, Lord's Prayer and Ten Commandments; Miss HOWLAND's Ornamental Chair; the Pine Burr; Palmetto and Willow Baskets; Toilet Covers; Wreaths in Shell-work, and innumerable specimens of fancy and ornamental work, by ladies, daily pouring in—each appealing to the different tastes of amateurs in such matters, called forth many expressions of admiration.

A very ingeniously executed plat of Charleston, cut in paste-board, in which all the streets, public buildings, &c., are correctly delineated from memory, by Mr. CHAS. W. DAVIS, of Sumter; a large Quilt, crotchet work, the fruits of the great industry and skill of Miss M. A. YATES, of Charleston; an exquisite little basket of pine-straw, by a lady of Savannah; a very antique plat of the Battle of Fort Moultrie, a valuable relic, rescued from threatened oblivion by Mr. MACKINTOSH, one of the Institute Committee. It is much defaced, but worthy to be preserved by some antiquarian.

Coach-making.—The attention of visitors was at once arrested by the splendid Clarence Coach of Mr. JOHN ARTMAN, of this city, the work of *native mechanics*, valued at $1,000, and fitted up in a style of elegance and luxury which a prince might well covet. Close by it, a most picturesque little light Buggy, good enough for any dashing young gallant and his sweet-heart, who have money enough, in partnership, to buy it, and reflecting the highest credit upon the skill and taste of its makers, Messrs. SMOAK & RAY, of Orangeburg, C. H., a town which has always, at our fairs here, borne away high encomiums in this branch of industry. The painting, which has been much admired, was executed by a negro, in the employ of these gentlemen.

Saddlery and Harness, from the manufactories of Mr. A. MCKENZIE, and Messrs. LOVE & WIENGES—very high finish and substantial work.

Book-Binding, from the well-known establishments of Mr. JOSEPH WALKER and Messrs. STOKES & GUENVEUR, equal in or-

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namental attractions and durability to any northern work of the same kind.

Plumbing.—Mr. J. F. CHURCH, whose contributions attracted such favorable remarks at the last fair, was at his post again with a variety of fine work in his line. Messrs. HORTON & PARK also exhibited the results of their labors in the same vocation.

A Patent *Rail-Road Wheel*, by Mr. E. B. BAKER, of this city. A *Sewing Machine*, by G. W. PRUDEN. A *Fanning Machine*, by a gentleman of this city. Several *Cotton Gins* from Georgia and Alabama. A barrel of fine *Irish Potatoes*, raised on his farm in the neighborhood by Mr. G. DEWITT, are among the numerous other noticeable contributions which we have not hitherto enumerated.

Another achievement in the coach line was by Messrs. BOATWRIGHT & POMEROY, of Columbia, whose superb *Rockaway*, with its rich crimson drapery, was daily making all the ladies dissatisfied with their present equipages, and beseeching their lords for a new turn-out for the Jockey Club races in February.

Those *Bricks*, sent by the Messrs. GRAVES, from their factory, will be in brisk demand, now that the Building and Loan Associations are helping on our young mechanics to erect comfortable houses. *Door Plates* likewise are all the fashion, and the samples from Columbia, furnished by Mr. SAMUEL S. HARROD, show that there is no necessity of sending away for our supplies. *Iron Railings*, as ornamental and costly as may be desired, can be supplied by Mr. WERNER. *Lead Pipes* and *Baths*, from cellar to garret, by Mr. CHURCH, and Mr. PARK will erect in the centre of the garden as pretty a *fountain* as the owner would like to pay for—judging from the appearance of his work near the door, which collected together so many spectators around it every day, to see the ball forced upwards by the constantly ascending jet.

Those two beautiful boats that figured so conspicuously in the Regatta—the *Violet* and *Southerner*, the former Charleston built, were sent to the fair for inspection, and elicited hundreds of flattering encomiums from the crowd.

The buckets from Mr. HAMLIN'S Bucket Factory at Mount Pleasant village, are deserving of prominent notice, as highly successful experiments in a new and important item of domestic manufacture. They are very substantial, neatly put together, and good enough for any housekeeper in the land.

We embody some additional particulars relating to the STATE FAIR which was held in October last at *Macon, Georgia*. Ever since 1846, we learn from the "Soil of the South," when the Ten-pin Alley, at the Stone Mountain, afforded ample accommodations for the exhibition, that the association has been moving progressively along, increasing in interest, and adding to the number of articles each year, until 1851, when the best friends of the enterprise looked in perfect amazement at the result of their labors, vastly exceeding any former year. Public expectation had been excited, and, measuring the future by the past, many had allowed themselves to expect too much, and consequently, in their first impressions at the late fair, expressed some disappointment. All, however, who gave themselves the trouble to make the comparison, were compelled to admit that the last was decidedly the best, and that the number of persons in attendance was also greater. Two large halls had been added, which gave more room, and consequently the appearance of less crowd of articles in those departments. Many other conveniences and comforts were provided on the ground, reflecting great credit upon the executive committee and the liberal spirit again exhibited on the part of the city of Macon, for the good taste displayed, and the ample accommodations for the occasion. Among the premiums, we note James M. Chambers, Columbus, Ga., best Essay on the Elements of Practical Agriculture, adapted to the soil and climate of the South, silver pitcher, worth $50; Charles A. Peabody, Columbus, Ga., best Essay on Southern Horticulture, embracing the culture of fruits, vegetables, and flowers, silver pitcher, $50; Rev. R. Johnson, Talbotton, Ga., best Essay for the Cultivation and Preservation of the Sweet Potato, silver pitcher, $20; Dr. F. H. Gordon, best Essay on Clover and other foreign grasses, silver pitcher, $15.

Premiums were given for Field Crops and Cotton-bales. *Cattle*—Devons, short-horns, Ayrshire, grades and natives, working oxen. *Horses*—of all work, draft, blood, imported, matched and single, jacks and jennettes, mules. *Sheep*—Imported Merinos, mutton sheep, south downs, long wools, natives, fat mutton. *Swine*—Small breeders, large breeds. Poultry, foreign and domestic; pork, bacon, and beef; dairy products; honey; household products; domestic manufactures—silk, needle-work, shell-work; manufactures other than domestic; *Fruits*—pears, peaches, grapes. Floriculture; horticulture; fine arts; agricultural implements; machinery; manufactures, steel and iron; manufactures of wood; manufactures of leather; manufactures of oils, cements, and minerals; manufactures of paper, bookbinding, and drawings.

In order to show how Georgia goes ahead in manufactures, we give the premiums awarded for *Manufactures other than Domestic*:

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Sterling F. Grimes, Agent, Columbus Howard Manufacturing Company, best bale osnaburgs, cup, worth $10; Wm. S. Holt, Agent, Macon Manufacturing Company, best bale shirtings, cup, $5; John S. Linton, Agent, Athens Manufacturing Company, best bale kerseys, cup, $5; John S. Linton, Agent, Athens Manufacturing Company, best bale stripes, cup, $5; Mrs. F. A. Solomons, Twiggs county, best coil bear grass rope, cup, $5; Daniel Grant, Agent, Hootensville Manufacturing Company, best coil cotton rope, cup, $5; Athens Manufacturing Company, Athens, John S. Linton, Agent, best bale cotton yarns, all numbers, cup, $10; Athens Manufacturing Company, Athens, John S. Linton, Agent, best bale of ticking, cup, $5; Messrs. Green, Carson & Young, Charlotte, N. C., best bale of cassimere, 10 bolts, cup, $5. Also, premium recommended, volume S. C. A. Society Transactions.

The judges would recommend the cassimeres manufactured by Messrs. Green, Carson & Young, to the notice of southern merchants, as being very superior.

The Planters' Factory, Butts county, presented a superior lot of woolen rolls.

A very fine specimen of bleached sheeting, exhibited by C. Wellaur, Augusta, is entitled to special notice, as being the first ever bleached in Georgia. Premium recommended—a volume S. C. A. Society Transactions.

We recommend the following award to Mrs. Stowe, whose Magnus Apollo, "George," is forced to run away, because his master, envious of his mechanical genius, would degrade him to the plow:

A wood model of steam-engine, saw-mill attached, by J. C. Branch's negro boy, Felix, Clark county, displaying much ingenuity. Premium recommended—set of bench tools.

There were five hundred and thirteen exhibitors, says the "Soil of the South"—an increase of over thirty-five per cent. of the last year. The number of visitors, as reported, were in about the same ratio. Had the exhibition been held about three weeks later, the number of visitors would have increased, it is thought, several thousand, and the receipts of the society from fifteen hundred to two thousand dollars. The gale, which has done so much damage to many parts of the country, and the sickness generally, have kept away thousands of anxious visitors.

The exhibition has excelled that of last year, in every department, for variety and extent. There has been an evident and manifest improvement in every article upon exhibition, from the slave, with his rude wooden model of the steam-engine, to the exquisite handiwork of the accomplished matron, attaining in art, with her needle, to the soft and delicate touches of the pencil. The display of animals was the largest by far that has ever been seen in Georgia; and in the poultry, for its excellence and merit, far in advance of anything that has ever been witnessed in this country.

The society is now established upon a sure basis, and its usefulness to the country at no time since its organization has been better demonstrated or so generally appreciated than at the exhibition just closed. It is destined to work a great revolution in the industrial habits and social relations of the people of the southern states.

The essays upon the "Treatment and Management of Slaves," and "Agricultural Education," which were not reported upon at the fair, have been forwarded, under a resolution of the Executive Board—the former to Col. James Hamilton Couper, of Darien, and the latter to Dr. N. B. Cloud, of Alabama, with authority to each to associate any two disinterested and competent gentlemen to assist in reporting upon the same at as early a day as practicable.

The *Miscellany and Review*, published at Memphis, and edited by Dr. Ebbert, is a new magazine, to be published monthly at two dollars per annum. The first number speaks well for the enterprise. The editor copies an article on southern school books, which we published last September, and of which we thought a good deal, but we regret that he struck out the reference in it to the Review, though acknowledging in another place his general indebtedness.

The *Western Journal*, at St. Louis, is still kept up with spirit, at $3 per annum. The *Literary Gazette*, at Charleston, at the same price. The *Literary Messenger*, at Richmond; but of this we would say a word. The Messenger has now reached 18 volumes. It is edited by one of the most talented gentlemen and scholars in all the South, and has in its service a host of able contributors. The price has been reduced to $3 per annum. Published at Richmond. The *Southern Planter*, Richmond, edited by Frank Ruffin, is well worth the attention of every southern agriculturist. Appleton's *Mechanic's Magazine*, monthly, $3 per annum. *Whig Review*, New-York, $3 per annum. *Telegraphic Magazine*, New-York. *Banker's Magazine*, New-York, $5 per annum—embraces a thousand subjects interesting to merchants and bankers, and should have a wide support in our business communities. The editor, Mr. Homan, has accumulated an immense amount of material upon banks and bankers, and has published several works, which can be obtained from his office. *United States Review.*—This is a new work, published by Theo. Foster, New-York, devoted to the propagation of the

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Democratic faith. The first number is handsomely issued, and contains many able and instructive papers. Three dollars per annum. *Rail-road Journal*, New-York.—Its copious material recommends it to the whole internal improvement interests of the country, and for ourselves, we acknowledge an amount of indebtedness to it which is not easily repaid. *Literary World*, New-York—*Norton's Gazette*—two valuable works for all literary circles. *American Cotton Planter*, Montgomery, Alabama—monthly, $1 per annum. N. B. Cloud, editor. We have No. 1, and recommend it to public favor. Hereafter will notice more fully. *American Railway Times*, Boston. We lately had the pleasure of a visit from the editor, Henry L. Jones, and cordially recommend his journal as one of wide utility. No magazine bids fairer than the *Southern Ladies' Book*, of which we have received two or three numbers, and which is published with fine engravings, in New-Orleans, at $3 per annum. Even in appearance it is quite equal to anything published at the North. The fair and talented editor furnishes a paper upon *Women of Genius*, in which she mourns the low appreciation in which their household qualities are held by the other sex. This is a mistake. Men revere genius quite as much in the other sex as they do in their own. In neither sex is it very desirable, *matrimonially* speaking, when it listens to the music of the spheres whilst the bailiff makes harsh discord at the door, or sweeps the strings of Apollo instead of rocking the cradle, in which suffering juvenility frets its long and neglected hours away. We ask pardon for these *household* intrusions, which some how or other shock rudely our dreams of poesy and romance, and render life at best a very common-place and matter-of-fact sort of an affair.

Mr. French, who has issued three volumes of historical documents relating to Louisiana, is out again with a fourth, which comprises the *Discovery and Exploration of the Mississippi Valley, with the Original Narratives of Marquette, Allouez, Membre, Hennepin, and Anastase*. The narrative of Marquette is published from the original manuscripts of the father, and a fac-simile of his map of the Mississippi is given. The translations are, for the most part, the work of John G. Shea. A great number of interesting notes have been added by Mr. French.

The Field Book of the Revolution, by Lossing, beautifully illustrated, has now reached the 29th number, and increases in interest.

Kathay is a neat little volume, which Putnam has furnished us through Morgan, of New-Orleans, and its description of a cruise fn the China seas will furnish us some notes ior an article we are expecting to publish soon upon those remote but growingly-interesting regions. The work is by W. Hastings Macaulay.

The Harpers have published a very large and beautiful volume, handsomely illustrated with portraits, and containing biographical sketches, etc., of the *most distinguished women* in every age of the world, from the time that mother Eve listened to the serpent's wiles to that which saw Mrs. Bloomer sport so gracefully the unmentionables. The editor is Mrs. Hale, a lady whose literary laurels have been acquired in the chair of the *Ladies' Book*, and in very many interesting contributions to the press. The present volume contains nearly a thousand pages, and so far as we can judge from a casual examination, is faithfully executed. Full extracts are given from the writings of the persons introduced. Mrs. Hale inserts herself in the *Record of Women*, which we will not fall out with her for doing, though it strikes us as a little singular she has omitted the name of Mrs. Louisa McCord, daughter of Langdon Cheves, a lady who, for vigor and grasp of thought, and chaste and eloquent composition, is not excelled by any of her sex in America. If she had written nothing besides Caius Gracchus, or her reply to Mrs Oakes Smith on "Woman and her Needs," which we published last year in the Review, her reputation would have been established upon a proud and high basis. In fact, her protest, in the name of the women of America, against the *Amazonian* movement, is enough in itself to confer immortality.

Mrs. Hale has expended years of toil upon this work, and we regard it as a valuable contribution to the library, and in that it is calculated to enhance our estimate of the sex, (to enhance their estimate of themselves would be impossible—aside.) We hope it will be found in every parlor and library. Mr. Morgan has received a supply.

Joseph W. Fabens has written a work entitled *Life upon the Isthmus*, which Mr. Putnam publishes in his Semi-monthly Library, and which Californians ought keenly to appreciate. In the same series of works we have *Pictures of St. Petersburgh*, by Ed. Jermann, translated from the German.

The Appletons furnish us, through J. B. Steel, with a beautiful edition of the many fine things which Mr. Clark has for several years served up in his highly interesting and sprightly Knickerbocker. The volume is entitled *Knick-Knacks* from an Editor's Table.

Professor Riddell, of the University of Louisiana, not long since exhibited, at a meeting of the Physico-Medical Society of

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New-Orleans, a *Binocula Microscope*, of which he claims the invention. It is described at length in Dr. Axson's Medical Journal. The object is to render both eyes serviceable in microscopic observations. It gives perfectly correct views in length, breadth, and depth, whatever power may be employed. By its aid the microscopic knife can be exactly guided in dissections, and the watch-maker and artist may work under it with entire certainty. Altogether it is an ingenious piece of work, and from personal inspection we can speak of its faithful performance of all that is claimed for it, and more than can be claimed for any other instrument of the kind.

We noticed in our last an improvement in *Sugar Making*, in use in British Guiana, but had not space for the following letter on the subject, by D. G. Bretton, a practical sugar manager, at present in Louisiana, and open to an engagement by any of our planters. He may be addressed to the care of the office of the Review. We give the letter:

"Having had occasion to visit British Guiana this summer, my attention was called to a newly invented evaporating sugar pan, in use there, and which was giving great satisfaction to the sugar planters of that country. It was but very recently invented in England, and is called "Schroder's Patent Open Disc Pan;" and the improvement consists—first, in its greater cheapness as compared with other evaporations; and second, in the property it possesses of crystallizing syrups at a temperature at which sugar cannot carbonize. Evaporation by this pan is as rapid as by the vacuum pan, while the expense, including the royalty, is only about five hundred dollars.

"The machinery is simple enough. It consists of a series of discs, revolving upon an axle, which may be turned by hand or steam-power, and which at every revolution exposes the liquid or syrup that adheres to them to atmospheric evaporation. It moves in a pan containing tiers of steam pipes supplied with steam from the engine boiler, and having the necessary machinery connected with them for condensation. The pan is about 4½ feet diameter; and the discs, separated by pieces on the spindle which supports them, work at a distance from each other of from three to four inches.

"The beauty of this machine consists in the simplicity of the construction, which allows accidental injury to be repaired by the commonest workman. The operation of the pan is very satisfactory, and the quality of the sugar is decidedly improved, while the molasses, or rather uncrystallized syrup, is readily treated with it again, and makes a sugar of fair quality. The facility with which molasses can be converted into sugar, is a feature in this machine which must strongly recommend it to the planter here."

The Hon. Garnett Andrews delivered a most instructive address, of which he has sent us a copy, at the Fair of the *Georgia Institute*. The subject of slavery is thoroughly discussed, and the rights, interests, and duties of the South put forth with ability. Upon direct trade he truthfully remarks, that all our merchants require is to be sure of a market, and they will import. He advocates southern direct trade associations. "Instead of forming an association of millions to import for sale, let thousands be combined for the purpose of importing what they need for themselves, or the retail merchant for others. There are men enough now in Macon who need a shipload of bagging, coffee, sugar, and perhaps blankets, etc., etc."

Chancellor Cocke, of Miss., has been kind enough to furnish us a copy of the Address to the People of Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana, by the *Committee of the Florence Convention*, upon the construction of the *New-Orleans and Nashville Road*. The chairman of the committee is E. H. Foster, junior. The address contains much valuable rail-road material, and we are glad to perceive that the committee have made full use of the pages of the Review. We wish that other committees would be as liberal in making this acknowledgment. In nine cases out of ten, our facts, figures, and arguments, are bodily appropriated, sometimes with the courtesy of inverted commas, oftener without; and no one would be the wiser, from the reports, that such a work ever existed as the Review. Some voluminous Texas reports lately came into our hands which are of this character. Now, gentlemen, instead of the ungracious task of hiding our light under a bushel, whilst we are doing our best to place it on the house-top, if you are rail-road men in earnest, you ought to insist that no man be even allowed to take stock who is not a subscriber or a reader of the Review; since, before God, we are an original offender in this matter of rail-roads, and have toiled night and day this last eight years to rouse the people in their favor, and to furnish facts and figures around which the fancy of orators might play! Give us the credit, or, at least, the *subscribers* which it might bring, and we will let you off.

We are indebted to the Hon. Pierre Soulé, of Louisiana, for valuable congressional and executive documents.

We are obliged to the author, Dr. H. A. Ramsay, of Columbia county, Georgia, for a copy of his pamphlet upon the *Medical*

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Treatment and Physiological Peculiarities of Negroes, in which he endorses the views put forth through our Review and the medical journals by Dr. Cartwright, with additional illustrations, but, we think, with a little too much severity towards his brothers of the lancet. "Where doctors disagree," however, &c., &c.

The Annual Report of the Virginia and Tennessee Rail-road has been forwarded to us, and will be noticed next month.

We recommend to our friends visiting New-Orleans who may be desirous of having a place for themselves or families upon canvas, to visit the studio of Wm. Z. Baker, 71 Canal-street, where they will find the portraits of many of our citizens, and secure the services of a very worthy artist.

One of the best Female Academies in New-Orleans is that of Mrs. A. L. Pagaud, upon Tivoli Circle. The school buildings are between Triton Walk and Nayades-street, and are central, and yet removed from business, noise, and dust—are spacious, well aired, and, withal, room for recreation. The boarding scholars enjoy peculiar advantages for learning French, as the teachers reside in the house; and in all the branches of a polite education—vocal and instrumental music, drawing and painting—great pains are taken that the professors are, in all respects, worthy of the confidence which is vouched for them.

If there is one thing more than another ungenerous and unjust, it is to receive the magazine of an editor, on which he has lavished toil, sweat, and money, year after year, *without paying for it*. If the result of carelessness, the party should for a moment reflect. But what should we say to those who receive our bills time after time, and time again, *without the slightest notice?* An explanation is at least due us. We are asking no favors in this thing. If a subscriber is not pleased with the Review, though we may regret it, we are still quite willing that he should pay up and discontinue. In regard to *non-paying subscribers* they can be of no use to any work. We are sorry to say it, it would be very easy to get any number of such.

To those subscribers who are always prompt, we send greeting our thanks.

Those who wait for agents we entreat to consider the mail our especial and our general agent for all purposes.

Those who "never think of the thing," we beg to sin no more thus.

Those who "don't like dunning," and equally don't like *paying*, we ask, square up for the past, and *depart in peace*.

Finally, to those who will turn over this page, and dismiss the subject from their thoughts again without attending to it, we will say——. But surely there will be none such, and why should we say anything hard on the subject. Our bills are sent out again. We are ready to make any corrections—to do any and every thing that is fair.

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FOR SALE, at the Office of De Bow's Review, one second-hand Iron Safe, in good condition—would suit a planter or country merchant, price $20.

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If planters cannot spare the means now, we will receive orders upon commission merchants in large towns, payable on sale of next crops. Surely this is liberal; but, having gone to an enormous expense, we do wish to be reimbursed. If any one is not pleased, return the book at our risk and cost. Will not our friends stir themselves in getting and sending orders?

This work is recommended to all of the present and future subscribers of the Review as the most complete Cyclopedia of Southern information yet published. It is issued in splendid style of print, paper and binding, and the volumes of the Review will hereafter be bound uniformly with it.

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BY

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We are obliged to J. B. Steel for a copy of this invaluable publication in 10 volumes, and regret that it is impossible for us to do it, in the present number of the Review, the justice it richly deserves. Pending, however, a paper which we shall publish in our next, the following remarks from one of our city contemporaries are fully indorsed and adopted by us:

"There is now in press a work possessing for the members of the legal profession in many other states almost as much interest as it does for those of Louisiana. This is Martin's Louisiana Reports, published originally in twenty volumes, and containing all the cases decided by the Supreme Court of Louisiana, from 1809 to 1830. It is well known that the basis of all the land titles in the states of Texas, California, Florida and Louisiana is the same. The conflicting grants made by the governments which preceded the United States in all these states have given rise to much litigation in each. Soon after the cession of Louisiana, her courts were crowded with contested claims to those virgin alluvial lands lying on the rivers and bayous which irrigated and enriched the state in every direction. The value of the property involved, and the novelty of the questions arising out of a foreign and ancient but well digested system of law, gave both interest and importance to these suits. It was fortunate for Louisiana and the litigants that both bar and bench were well fitted for the elucidation and application of the great principles of jurisprudence decisive of the matters in dispute. During the greater portion of the time embraced within these reports the Supreme Court was composed of Alexander Porter, George Matthews and F. X. Martin. Three men more learned and upright never occupied seats upon the same bench. In these reports, prepared by one of themselves, will ever be a monument which will preserve as well their works as their names. At the bar, and in the meridian of their talents and their reputation, were Edward Livingston, Mazureau, Livermore, James Brown, whose great minds were animated and quickened by the splendid and valuable prizes for which they contended. In California, we are sure the profession can find no compilation or work of any kind which can supply the want of these reports. It is not alone in regard to the titles to lands that these reports are valuable. They contain many standard decisions upon every branch of the commercial law, the law of evidence and the conflict of laws. In the number and interest of cases arising under this last-mentioned head of the law, these reports unquestionably excel all others. The wide difference between the laws of Louisiana and those of all the other states of the Union, joined to its rapid settlement after the cession, produced numerous instances of a collision of individual interests. How large was the number of such cases, and with what research and ability they were determined, the professional reader has already some idea from the frequent quotations to be found in Judge Story's "Conflict of Laws." We feel the pride of a citizen in announcing that the enterprise of our townsman, Mr. J. B. Steel, No. 60 Camp-street, is about to give to the legal profession a new and improved edition of these valuable reports. The old edition has long since been out of print, and very difficult to obtain, even in Louisiana, at the high price of $120 a copy. Mr. Steel, whose high character and probity, as a bookseller, are well known, promises that the new edition shall be gotten up in a style to make it acceptable to the bar. The paper will be of the best description, the work is stereotyped, and the print clear, distinct, and of good size. The work is immeasurably improved, and indeed made almost a vade mecum of the Louisianian law, by having references to the whole body of the laws of the state, including the codes, the constitution, the statutes and later decisions of the Supreme Court down to the present year. These references have been compiled by Judge T. G. Morgan, a gentleman eminently qualified for the task by his learning and great experience. It is important to add, that this edition, although in one-half the number of volumes of the original, is an entire reprint of the former text, without any condensation or change whatever, except to correct typographical errors, and to note points decided by the court but not noticed by the reporter. The great value, and the low price at which these reports are offered, commend them to every gentleman of the bar."

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OFFICE OF THE

Association for the Exhibition of the Industry of all Nations.

NEW-YORK, July 12th, 1852.

The Association for the Exhibition of the Industry of all nations give notice that the Exhibition will be opened, in the city of New-York, on the 2d day of May, 1853. The Municipal Authorities have granted to them the use of Reservoir Square, and they are proceeding to erect thereon a building worthy of the purpose to which it is to be devoted. The Association desire to make the Exhibition, in fact as well as in name, a representation from other countries as well as their own, of raw materials and produce, manufactures, machinery and fine arts. To this end they have made arrangements with Charles Buschek, Esq., late Commissioner of the Austrian Empire at the Industrial Exhibition of London, whose skill, experience, and high character offer the most satisfactory security to contributors from abroad. Mr. Buschek is the authorized Agent of this Association, for all countries other than the continent of America, and as such, has received its instructions. All communications from contributors abroad must be addressed to him at "The Office of the Exhibition of the Industry of all Nations, in New-York," No. 6 Charing Cross, London. He will state to them the nature of the powers given, and authority conferred, and will also explain the great inducements offered by this enterprise to European exhibitors. This Association will correspond with all persons in the United States, the Canadas and British Provinces, the West Indies, and this Continent generally, who may desire to contribute to this exhibition. All communications must be addressed to "The Secretary of the Association for the Exhibition of the Industry of all Nations, New-York." The Association is now ready to receive applications, and it is desired that they be sent in immediately. Due notice will be given hereafter, when the building will be ready for the reception of articles. Applications for the admission of objects to the Exhibition must represent intelligibly their nature and purpose, and must also state distinctly the number of square feet, whether of wall, floor or counter, required. Machinery will be exhibited in motion—the motive power to be furnished by the Association—and applications for the admission of machinery, to be so exhibited, in addition to the general description and the requisition for space, must set forth the amount of motive power required. The Association deem it proper to announce that paintings in frames will be exhibited. As, notwithstanding the magnitude of the proposed building, there must necessarily be a limitation of space, the Association reserves the right to modify or reject applications, but, in so doing, will be governed by strict impartiality, looking only to the general objects of the enterprise. The Association also reserves the right of determining the length of time, not to exceed in any case one season, during which objects shall severally form part of the exhibition. Exhibitors are requested to designate an agent, to whom their contributions shall be delivered when withdrawn from the exhibition. Prizes for excellence in the various departments of the exhibition, will be awarded under the direction of capable and eminent persons. With this statement the Directors solicit the co-operation of the productive intellect and industry of their own and other countries.

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DE BOW'S REVIEW:

A MONTHLY JOURNAL

OF

COMMERCE, AGRICULTURE, MANUFACTURES, INTERNAL IMPROVEMENT, STATISTICS, ETC., ETC.

ESTABLISHED JANUARY 1, 1846.

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ART. I.—EXTENSION OF THE SUGAR REGION OF THE UNITED STATES.

SOME REMARKS ON THE QUESTION: "HOW FAR NORTH THE CULTURE OF THE SUGAR-CANE CAN BE PROFITABLY EXTENDED IN THE UNITED STATES?"

I HAVE interrogated facts and science on the question, and they say, that the sugar region, proper, extends much further north than is generally supposed. A false theory, in regard to the climate the best for the cane, has limited its culture, in the United States, mostly to the 30th parallel of latitude, and a little beyond. But one fact is worth many theories. A thousand hogsheads of sugar was made last year, 1851, on a plantation the farthest north of any other sugar estate in America, and this sugar, I am creditably informed, brought a better price, and the molasses sold for two cents on the gallon above any in the market. The plantation is owned by Mr. Calhoun, and lies in latitude 31½°, nearly half a degree north of Alexandria, on Red River. While theory would limit the sugar region in the United States to 30°, actual experiment has found, in latitude 31° 30′, not only as good, but a better climate for the production than that further south. A similar erroneous notion, about the best climate for cotton, kept the culture of the cotton plant within and on the borders of the tropics for more than two hundred years. It would have been there still, if science had not interposed and proved the folly of the traditional opinions derived from Old Spain. From the same old non-progressive country we have got, until recently, all our ideas about sugar—its culture, manufacture, and the climate and soil most suitable for its production. Because the cane and cotton plants grow in the tropics where there was no frost, Spanish logic arrived at the conclusion that those plants could not be profitably cultivated in any region subject to cold, frosty weather. True science, guided by experience, has already proved the reverse in regard to the cotton plant, and it will no doubt demonstrate the same thing of the cane. It will prove, that a little frosty weather is as essential to the perfect maturity of the one plant as the other, and that neither comes to perfection without it. Cold nights and hot days, near the period of maturity, give strength and elasticity to the staple of cotton, and have a favorable effect upon cane, preparing the liquid sugar in it to mature sooner and better, and to crystallize, when defecated, in firmer, harder, and dryer grains than it does in tropical climates.

The further north the cane plant can be made to grow and mature its juice, the better will be the sugar, and the higher its value, because its grain will be better, as proved by the sugar made on Mr. Calhoun's plantation, situated a degree and a half north of the supposed limits of the sugar region. Every sugar broker in New-Orleans is apprised of the fact that Louisiana sugar is far superior to that made in the West India islands. Some years ago, before I was aware of

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this fact, a personal friend in Indiana sent me a good horse, and requested me to send his value in the best quality Orleans brown sugar. Wishing to show my gratitude for the good horse, I aimed at sending a superior article to that ordered, and purchased a number of boxes of the best white Havana in market. But I found he did not like it, and objected to it as being neither so sweet nor palatable as what he called *Orleans sugar*—the product of Louisiana plantations. This I attributed at the time to a perverted taste and want of judgment, but subsequent investigation proved that he was correct. The prevalent idea, got up by politicians to get protection, that sugar is a forced product in Louisiana, and the cane plant a sickly exotic, defeated its object, and was ruinous to the sugar interest of the southern states, as it caused the duty to be reduced to the revenue standard, and prevented that protection which the introduction of a new agricultural product, requiring an immense outlay of capital, needed and would have got, and no doubt will get, when the truth becomes generally known, that our soil and climate are the best for it in the world. Nothing more is needed to give to the southern states the same monopoly in the production of sugar that they have in cotton, than a knowledge of its natural history generally diffused among our people, and a sufficient protection of the sugar interest to induce our agriculturists to make the first outlay in the expensive machinery and buildings necessary in the culture and manufacture of the cane into sugar. After capital and labor have, by a wise governmental encouragement, been once extensively diverted to that branch of industry, it would need no further aid, and instead of being an extensive importer of foreign sugars, the United States would soon become as great an exporter of that product of our soil as of cotton. However parties may differ on the tariff question, touching the sugar interest, while that branch of industry is paraded before Congress, dressed in the false colors of a sickly beggar, to be a perpetual tax upon other interests, without the hope of any ulterior and remunerating benefit, there could be no essential differences of opinion in the tariff and anti-tariff parties in regard to the question of not only giving encouragement, but ample encouragement, to the domestication of an agricultural product, for which our country is better adapted than any other on the globe—requiring nothing more than temporary aid to become, like cotton, one of the heaviest and most profitable of our exports.

But the truth, that our country is better adapted than any other on the whole globe for the profitable culture of the cane, should first be made to appear. The errors which have been thrown around the question by a certain class of politicians, who opposed the acquisition of Texas, and those favorable to forcing upon the country by high tariffs, various branches of industry, without discriminating between seed sown on stony ground, and that in which it would take deep root and sustain itself, must first be removed. Thus, it has been assumed by the Hon. Joel Poinsett, and politicians of that class, who opposed the re-annexation of Texas, and at present assumed by the opposers of the fair acquisition of Cuba by purchase, that the cane of Cuba is eight times as rich as that of Louisiana, and that the lands of Mexico, on the authority of Humboldt, yield twice as much sugar per hectare as the West India islands. Hence the inference was drawn, that the acquisition of either country would ruin the sugar planters of Louisiana. Most of our planters believed, and still believe, the policy of acquiring territory further south, to be suicidal to their pecuniary interests; yet many of them, glorious patriots! were foremost in advocating it as a public good, although to be reached by their own bankruptcy. Happily, however, the assumption, that the cane is a sickly exotic in Louisiana, yielding less saccharine matter than that of the West India islands, or any other country, is without foundation. The statement quoted from Humboldt, and published in Vol. III. of De Bow's Industrial Resources of the South and West, page 284, that "a hectare of the best land in Mexico will produce no less than 5,600 pounds of raw sugar," is admitted as a truth. It is also admitted that Humboldt may be right in the statement, that that is double the amount produced from the same quantity of land in Cuba. But before permitting these facts of Humboldt to be used any longer as a bugbear for political effect, it is necessary to ascertain how much sugar a hectare of land

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in Louisiana will produce. If it will produce only 350 pounds, as agreed by Poinsett, and Cuba will produce 2,800 pounds, then would the acquisition of that island break up the sugar culture of Louisiana.

A hectare of land is about two and a half acres. By referring to the Picayune newspaper of this city of the 29th of December, 1852, it will be perceived, that Mr. James Wafford, of St. Mary, Louisiana, made, the past season, on forty acres of land in that parish, 190 hogsheads of sugar of 1,000 lbs. each, or 11,775 lbs. per hectare—beating the best land of Cuba or Mexico more than two to one. By referring to the Banner of the 25th of December, published in Franklin, La., it will be seen that many planters in the vicinity of that town have just made upwards of three hogsheads of sugar, of 1,000 lbs. each, per acre, or 7,500 to the hectare—exceeding Humbolt's highest figures by a thousand pounds per hectare. I have the best authority for stating, that W. W. Wilkins, Esq., of the parish of St. James, made, the past season, 48 hogsheads of sugar on twelve acres of ground, or ten thousand pounds per hectare. Col. Preston, of Assumption, averaged 3,000 lbs. per acre (7,500 lbs. per hectare) on 200 acres of ground. Harpour, of Pointe Coupee, made on some of his land this season 10,000 lbs. per hectare, nearly doubling Mexico. The other assumption, that the cane juice of Cuba is eight times as rich as that of Louisiana, is positively disproved by direct experiment, viz.: the analysis of Louisiana cane juice by the learned and neglected Avequin, of New-Orleans. (See De Bow's Review, July, 1848, "Avequin on the Sugar-cane.")

Prof. McCulloh (see his "Report to Congress") found the cane juice of one of the finest plantations in Cuba, the Ingenio Saratoga, near Matanzas, to contain 18.07 per cent. of sugar. No reliable author who has written on the subject has ever made it exceed 25 per cent. Prof. McCulloh strangely omitted to test the quantity of sugar in Louisiana cane, and left Poinsett's statement (Avequin's) uncorrected. To supply that omission, and to test the correctness of Avequin's statements, last November I took various specimens of Louisiana cane, picked up at random from the sugar plantations in the vicinity of New-Orleans, to Prof. Riddell's chemical laboratory, and had the quantity of sugar contained in the juice accurately ascertained by the same process as that employed by Prof. McCulloh. It was found to average from fifteen to sixteen per cent. of pure crystallizable sugar. W. P. Riddell, A. M., perfectly familiar with such matters, made the examination, Prof. Riddell looking on.

Avequin makes the general average of Louisiana cane juice 15.35 per cent.; specific gravity, 1061.5, corresponding with 8½° Baumé's saccharometer. According to McCulloh's analysis of the juice of canes in Cuba, on one of the best plantations in the island, selected by him from canes nearly twice as old as those of Louisiana, it did not exceed in richness the general average of Louisiana cane juice more than 2¾ per cent., instead of being eight times as rich, as Poinsett and other politicians opposed to the acquisition of southern territory have been led to believe on incorrect testimony. But if it be admitted, for argument sake, that Louisiana cane juice, expressed from canes from seven to nine months old, be a little less rich in sugar than that of Cuba, expressed from canes from fourteen to eighteen months old, it must be admitted that this difference in richness is more than made up by the greater amount of juice yielded per ton of cane in Louisiana over and above the quantity of juice yielded by the same weight of cane in Cuba.

Almost all the writers on the subject, among whom is Avequin, seemed to take for granted, that the greater yield in juice per ton of cane in Louisiana than Cuba, was owing to the mills and machinery being better in the former than in the latter. But, according to McCulloh, the mills and machinery are better in Cuba than in Louisiana. Five experiments, each made on 1,000 lbs. of cane, on the plantation of Marmillion, St. James, Louisiana, gave from 63 to 64 per cent. of juice, as reported by Avequin; whereas the yield in juice of Cuba cane, reported by McCulloh as ascertained by the Prof. of Chemistry of the University of Havana, was only 45 per cent. on Count O'Reilly's plantation, 57 per cent. on Don Montalvo's, and 35 per cent. on Don Diagro's. It would therefore appear that Louisiana cane is from 10 to 20 per cent. richer in juice than that of Cuba.

The juice examined by the Riddells, at my instance, was found to average

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159 grammes of pure crystallizable sugar per litre, or 7119 gms. per gallon. By referring to Porter's work on the Culture and Manufacture of the Sugar-cane, (p. 59, second edition, London, 1843,) it will be seen that a pound—that is, 7000 gms. —of sugar from a gallon of West India best cane juice is considered a good yield. On a plantation in Jamaica, for eleven years, the annual average yield rose a little above, and fell a little below, a pound of sugar per gallon of cane juice. In St. Vincent and Grenada the yield was no more. On all the islands, the juice from cane only twelve months old did not exceed half a pound per gallon; whereas the Louisiana cane juice, from plants less than nine months old, yielded upwards of a pound of pure white sugar per gallon.

The question, whether Louisiana is within or without the boundaries of the sugar region proper, should first be settled before the northern boundary of that region can be ascertained. That Louisiana is the heart and centre of the sugar region proper, is proved by the facts that it not only produces more sugar to each laborer, and more to each acre, than any of the West India islands, any part of the East Indies, Mauritius, Demerara, or Mexico, but a *better article*. It is well known that two hogsheads to the acre, and eight or ten hogsheads of sugar to each effective operative, is no uncommon yield of Louisiana plantations. As high as four and three quarters have been made, the last season, per acre, and three hogsheads have been very common. An acre of well-manured and well-cultivated ground in the West Indies and in other tropical countries, will sometimes yield as much, or more than that; but then it is to be recollected that the canes are not cut in tropical climates until they are from fourteen to sixteen months old, whereas in this country they are cut at from seven to nine months old, and the same acre will produce a crop every year, instead of every two years. The biennial crop of an acre in tropical climates ought to double the annual crop of our temperate climate to be equal to it. But, so far from doubling, it does not equal our annual crop, as will appear by reference to G. R. Porter on the Cane Culture in the West Indies. By referring to the first edition of that standard work, which edition contains the statistical tables, it will be seen that the average quantity of sugar produced per acre on those plantations from which reliable statistics were obtained, is so small, that any Louisiana planter would abandon the culture if his land did not produce more to the acre and more to the hand or laborer than the West India plantations. Thus, (see page 328, first edition,) eighty-nine negroes and 135 acres in cane only produced 120 hogsheads of 1,000 lbs. each. On the same page, a brag plantation, with half the land in cane and 150 negroes, we are informed, made 185,600 lbs. of sugar, or 185½ hogsheads. Now, the Orange Grove plantation, a little below Donaldsonville, made the last season, with only 106 negroes, old and young, men, women, and children included, 725 hogsheads of first quality sugar, and 175 hogsheads of inferior brown sugar—900 hogsheads in all, of 1,000 lbs. each. Five of the above-mentioned negroes walk on wooden legs. At page 326, we find that, in Barbadoes, 86 grown negroes, 38 girls and boys, and 26 children, produced 185½ hogsheads of 1,000 lbs. each. Now, Mr. Wilkins, of St. James, the last season, made 900 hogsheads of sugar with sixty hands. At page 323, we have the statistics of a plantation in the Island of Tortola, with 135 acres in cane, and cultivated by 89 negroes, producing only 124½ hogsheads of 1,000 lbs. each; whereas in Louisiana it would be considered a poor crop if the same land and force did not produce three times as much. Whenever an acre of WestIndia land exceeds two hogsheads, it will be found that it is by what is called garden cultivation—irrigation, manuring, and constantly stirring the soil. But in Louisiana, where negro labor is so valuable and land so cheap, garden or high cultivation, to force from the land its utmost yield, is not practised as in other countries where labor is cheaper.

Whatever may be said against negro slavery in the southern states, one thing is certain, that the people erroneously called slaves, (if the European ideas of slavery be applied to them,) are paid higher wages than any agricultural peasantry of Europe. The wages are not paid in silver or gold, but in those more substantial comforts of life, which the wages paid to European field laborers, or to the 150 millions of British East India peasantry, falsely called freemen, would not purchase. A great deal of the old lands of

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Louisiana, as cane is a very exhausting crop, may not average more than a hogshead, or as much to the acre, but as the laborers are better fed and clothed, and more attention paid to their health, comfort and happiness, they make more sugar than an equal number of laborors in any other country in the world where the cane is cultivated. From Porter and other high authorities, we learn that the average quantity of sugar, produced in the several West India islands, is under, rather than over, a hogshead for each negro on the plantations—often not equaling more than that for each effective laborer. Here, in Louisiana, five hogsheads for each effective laborer is considered bad cropping. From Porter's work on the Cane Culture, 1st edition, pages 246 and 247, it will be seen that the average quantity of sugar produced per acre in Mexico, is only 750 lbs. From other authorities, we learn that from one to two peons are assigned to each acre. From "Dr. Roxburg on the Hindoo Method of Cultivating the Cane," from "Dr. Hamilton's Statistical Survey of Dinajpore," and "Dr. Buchanan's Journey from Madras to Malabar," we learn that the East India laborers, per capita, do not produce as much sugar as those of the West Indies or Mexico. In Java, with two laborers to the acre, the average of the middling and best quality lands is from 1200 to 1800 lbs. per acre. In Mauritius, 2000 lbs. per acre is considered a good yield, so says Porter, page 242. This is the island, which, some time ago, alarmed the sugar planters of the East and West Indies, Brazil and Demerara, so much, lest its wonderful fertility and the richness of its cane should break up the sugar culture everywhere else. I am sure that even its annexation to the United States would not scare our planters, particularly such men as Wilkins and Wafford. Facts, when interrogated, respond that Louisiana is not without, but in the centre of the sugar region proper, if the quantity and quality of the sugar produced, by a given amount of labor, be the guides in locating that region. Yet the same logic, the same errors and prejudices, which would throw even the southern borders of Louisiana too far north for the cane to be profitably cultivated, except as a sickly exotic, fostered in the sunshine of governmental favors, have had an injurious effect upon the cotton planting interest, in causing that interest to glut the cotton market from the lands that could have been more profitably put in cane, if the truth had been known, and that liberal encouragement extended to the culture the change of labor from one agricultural product to another always requires. But if Congress will not give a sufficient duty, men of science ought to interpose and send forth the scientific truth, at present confined to their closets, that the sugar made in a frosty climate is worth double the money of that made in tropical regions—being more healthy and nutritious. If this truth were generally known, the cane culture in the United States would no longer be confined to a narrow strip of land on and near the 30th parallel of latitude, but would be extended further north, and every one would be anxious to know how far north this good, vital, *dextrogyrate* sugar, the restorer of health, the renovator of age, the beautifier of the complexion, and the preserver of the teeth, would be profitably carried.

The extension of the cane culture would enhance the value of every other southern agricultural product, and would thereby enrich the whole South. The South enriched would enrich the West, and, like Ruth and Naomi, they would cleave together. The serious fears entertained by our ablest statesmen of that fanaticism which monarchical Europe is artfully using for the purpose of overthrowing the American Republic of confederated states, destroying their power and blotting out their bright example, and at the same time depriving them of their main source of wealth by transferring the rich productions of southern agriculture to India and Australia, covering the objects of the unceasing war it is waging against the labor and institutions of the South, under the false pretence of philanthropy for the negro race—has already, in a great degree, been dispelled by the people of nearly all the states in the Union having weighed transatlantic philanthropy and found it wanting. But the most effectual check which abolitionism has received, or could receive, until another Cromwell rises in England, has been given by the Great West saying to the South, in the language of Ruth, "*Whither thou goest I will go, thy people shall be my people, and thy God my God. Where thou diest will I die, and there will I be buried.*"

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With the Great West, steadfastly minded to cleave to the South, abolitionism will be deprived of the power to force disunion upon these happy states. The extension of the sugar culture would open new avenues and markets for western industry, and soon the two sections, the Great West and the South, (*ere long to be the Great South,*) would be indissolubly united by a network of rail-ways.

The object of this paper is not to fix the limits, but inquire of fact and science how far north the profitable culture of the cane can be carried. Happily for the interests of southern and western agriculture, a few patriotic and practical men have broken the fetters of prejudice by boldly carrying the culture of the cane a degree or more of latitude further north than the boundary which prejudice and error had assigned as the utmost limits of its profitable culture. Already they are reaping a rich reward in dollars and cents. But they are doing more than merely enriching themselves. By turning cotton into cane fields they are laying the foundation of a prosperous future to the cotton planters. Lands, tired from the cotton culture, bring the best cane. The cotton planters in the southern section of the cotton region would not reap all the benefit; because those in the northern portion too far north for the cane, would be benefited in the enhancement of the price of the article. Moreover, the best and most convenient market in the world, for what is called up-country or western produce, including horses, mules, beef and pork, would be opened to the Great West, and that vast region would be linked indissolubly to the fortunes of the South. While the cotton market, from over production, is kept down, and the cane culture confined to the half-exhausted lands of the southern boundary of Louisiana, neither the cotton nor the sugar planters can afford to be the extensive purchasers of northwestern produce they would be, if cotton commanded a higher price, and sufficient encouragement were extended to the sugar interest, to divert a large portion of the land and labor, now appropriated to the cotton branch of industry, to that of sugar. Under high prices of cotton and sugar our planters would find it cheaper to buy horses and mules than to breed them; they would plant less corn and more cane and cotton. Whereas, under low prices, they have already begun to find, that the profits of those plantations which breed their own horses and mules, and make their own corn, beef and pork, are the greatest. But if this practice should become general, the northwestern states will be deprived of their best market, and will link themselves by rail-roads, as they are now doing, with the better markets of the northeastern Atlantic states. Notwithstanding, they will bring their produce to the South, if, enriched by an extension of the sugar culture, it can afford to pay better prices for western produce than the northeastern states and Europe. It will be thus enriched if the cane culture be extended even as high up as the 32d parallel of latitude—only half a degree above Mr. Calhoun's plantation, where the best sugar is made. For more than twenty-years, P. M. Lapice has grown excellent cane near Natchez, in 31½°. It has also for many years been found to succeed very well on Lake St. Joseph, north of 32°. It grows well also in the vicinity of Monroe, on the Washita, in 32½°. I am creditably informed that there is no finer looking sugar-cane anywhere to be found than in Marshall county, Mississippi, near Holly Springs, but a little below the 35th parallel of latitude. Gen. Felix Huston has found from experience that peaches ripen and come to perfection much sooner at Vicksburg, in 32½°, than two degrees further south, near Baton Rouge.

The archives of medicine contain more useful knowledge on the subject of the sugar-cane and its essential salt, than all the other sciences put together. Dutrone, Roxburg, Edwards, Hamilton, Buchanan, Hoffman, Pelletier, Magendie, and more than half the authors who have ever written on the subject, belonged to the medical profession; and last but not least, that profession may properly claim *Avequin*, a learned druggist and chemist of this city, who has been worth more than his weight in gold a dozen times over to the planting interest, by the light which he has made science throw upon the culture of the cane, and the manufacture of its juice into sugar.

It was Avequin who, many years ago, explained the action of lime as a defecating agent, and the necessity of using it pure, mixed with distilled water. He made the discovery of a peculiar kind of natural alcohol in cane juice, which

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he called *cerosie*. The great chemists, Liebig and Dumas, gave the Orleanian full credit for his discovery, but as yet its importance is not fully appreciated. Prof. McCulloh improperly confounded the substance discovered by Avequin with bees-wax, to which it has no kind of resemblance. He also proved that the juice of the cane, in its normal condition, does not contain a particle of acid in a free state, and only a little carbonic acid at the moment of compression, thus arresting the expensive and destructive war the sugar makers had been carrying for centuries against wind-mills in the shape of acid in the juice. The indication of acid in the juice, by the test with litmus paper, he proved to be a deception caused by the presence of phosphate of lime. The existence of this last-mentioned popular remedy for breast complaints he was the first to prove existed in cane juice.

Avequin's method of using nothing but pure lime water to defecate the cane juice, is that pursued by P. M. Lapice, Esq., of St. James, who makes the best sugar in the world.

Unfortunately, however, for the South, if members of the medical profession interest themselves in matters of public utility, whether it be political economy, agriculture, manufactures, or internal improvements of any description, the ignorant, indolent, envious and jealous, are always ready to injure and curtail their usefulness by sneering at them as dangerous experimenters, crack-brained theorizers, too learned for the practical duties of their profession; as if spending their leisure moments in the chemical laboratory, or at books or the writing-desk, would disqualify them for practice, more than if they had spent the same time in low chicanery, idle frivolity, or at the haunts of dissipation.

It is the ignorant who try dangerous experiments, not the wise and the learned. Every thing is experimental with the ignorant, whether they be planters, chemists or physicians. Learned planters do not spoil their sugar with experiments they know have been tried before and failed; nor do well-read physicians thus lose their patients. But in the hands of the ignorant, life and sugar are both in danger.

The usefulness of the celebrated Dr. Rush was so much curtailed by his being sneered at as a politician and jack-of-all-trades, that nothing but his most consummate skill as a practical physician prevented his entire practice from being swept away from him. Those, with medicable wounds, who listened to the outcry of the illiberal and selfish against the American Hippocrates, often paid dearly for their folly in not finding the balm of Gilead of which he was the great dispenser. His name is on that immortal scroll—the Declaration of American Independence, and his fame as a skilful practical physician shines brighter as years roll on, as if to prove to after ages that eminent skill in practical medicine is not incompatible with that patriotism which takes an active part in subjects connected with the general welfare. So blighting to the private interests of professional men, particularly medical men, is any meddling with public affairs, that those who practice their profession more for the fees than for any good the knowledge they may derive from it may do the public, studiously avoid making themselves targets for the illiberal and envious, and never go an inch beyond the narrow limits of the routine duties they are paid for performing.

The southern people, southern institutions, and southern agriculture, are daily losing, from this European, selfish custom introduced among us, much useful knowledge, especially that acquired by practical physicians, which dies with its professors. But, as an encouragement to all those members of the medical profession, however illiterate or humble they may be, who may have acquired, or think they have acquired, by chance or otherwise, any knowledge which may be turned to purposes of public utility, Benjamin Rush is not dead and forgotten, as his defamers are; he still lives to smile upon them, and to beckon to them to make it known for public good

Much error and obscurity still hang over the important subjects of the management of our negro peasantry—the amelioration of their condition—their *enlightenment*—the preservation of their health—the improvement of their morals, and the proper measures to make their services more valuable. The profession which deals with all the agencies influencing both mind and body, is better qualified, than any other, to throw light on these important subjects to southern agriculture.

Food and raiment, whether drawn

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from the earth or animal kingdom, are more intimately connected with the cure and prevention of diseases, than those substances called drugs or medicines—they require the same careful study; being also more intimately connected with mind, the disposition, and moral qualities. Thus medicine becomes, from necessity, an associate of agriculture, as it must teach the properties of the various agricultural products, and their influences on the mind and body. If it aspires no higher than to a knowledge of a few drugs, it is not the godlike science of medicine, but mere quackery. That the science of medicine, properly so-called, can throw much light on the qualities and properties of sugar, and the natural history of the cane plant, no one will question, who has looked into its archives. The few scraps of knowledge which my imperfect acquaintance with that science, which I have not half mastered, has enabled me to pick up, are communicated as a duty, hoping that they may be of some benefit to southern agriculture, and promote the public good. To go where duty calls, regardless of the good or evil on the way, I fain would make a rule of action. The writing of this paper I conceive to be a duty, and in its performance nothing else is looked to but the duty itself, or I would not write it, knowing it will be used to my prejudice, as a proof that I am a politician, and, of course, do not know how to give quinine and calomel.

I find, from the records of medicine, that long ago it has been ascertained, that, at a very small expense of time and trouble, in latitudes below thirty-five degrees, the cane tops can be so arranged over the ratoons as to protect them from the hardest frosts. There is also a recently discovered scientific truth, which has an important bearing on the practicability of greatly extending the profitable culture of the cane in a northern direction. It is, that the sugar in cane juice is a vital product, or at least subject to the same laws as fibrin and other vital products of the kind. The saccharine matter, in other fruits, is produced by chemical affinities and not by vital actions; whereas that contained in the cane is formed by vital laws, as muscle is, and not by chemical agencies, as in other plants.

This vital product called cane sugar, is found to rotate the plane of polarization of polarized light to the right, whereas the solutions of the chemical sugars rotate to the left. I have proved by direct experiment, that fresh cane juice is death and destruction to certain animalculæ, particularly those called the rotifera, from their seeming to revolve like wheels. When fed on carmine, and viewed through Prof. Riddell's inverted microscope, they were compared by a bystander to *Tom Thumb* steamboats, an apt comparison, from the rapid vibration of the cilia, looking like the movement of the paddle-wheels of a steamboat under headway. The scientific name is euchlanis. (See Pritchard's Infusorial Animalcules, London, 1852.) Other animalculæ were fancifully compared to bears in a cane-brake;—(leucophry's patula of Pritchard. The substance like cane being the ocillaria of Riddell.)

The professor fed them with various matters, which they devoured with the same rapacity as the ravenous beasts of the forest devour their food. They were tried with human blood, which they gobbled down with a keen relish. At length a little fresh cane juice was put among them, and it killed the whole of them in a few seconds, as if it had been a clap of thunder. Prof. Riddle, myself, and all present, were greatly astonished at the result of the experiment, which was repeated several times with the same effect. He tried to re-animate them, but failed. Other nameless animalculæ, resembling tape-worms, broke into two parts when touched with the cane juice, and each part soon died.

Few or no insects feed upon the juice of the cane. It has been supposed, that an insect invisible to the naked eye, the *aphis* of Linnæus, so destructive some years to entire crops of cane in the West Indies, feeds upon the juice, producing the disease called the *blast*. But it is more probable, from the experiments of the Rev. L. Guilding, that the *blast* is caused by the insects feeding upon the leaves, the proper lungs of the plant, and which do not contain an atom of cane sugar. He advised the dead and injured leaves to be stripped off, which was found to be so effectual, that the Ceres gold medal was awarded him for the advice. (See vol. 46. Transactions of the Society for the Encouragement of the Arts, &c. St. Vincent.)

There is in some of the West India

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islands, and also in Louisiana, a kind of grub, called the *borer*, which does more or less damage to the cane; but it is destroyed by the Rev. L. Guilding's process. It is bred in the leaves and bores into the rings of the joints of the cane. These rings contain mucilage and gummy matter, not sugar, which is deposited in the cells of the pithy substance between the rings. The ants are often seen to be very busy in the cane field, as they are everywhere; but none except the white ant, occasionally met with in the West Indies, seem to do any damage to the plant. The overseers look upon the little ant, the *formica omnivera* of Linnæus, as a protector of the cane plant from the depredations of other insects. But it is protected by a higher law, which enacts that the juice, so wholesome and nutritious for all *warm-blooded* animals, shall be poisonous and destructive to the *cold-blooded*, including animalculæ.

Thus we learn from Magendie and other medical authors, that it will kill worms, toads and lizards, whether applied externally or given internally. But that pure cane juice and the sugar contained in it, is extremely wholesome and nutritious to warm-blooded animals, there is abundant proof. Dr. Rush says, that "sugar affords the greatest quantity of nourishment in a given quantity of matter of any subject in nature." Dr. Benj. Franklin long ago discovered that the virtue of certain nostrums resided entirely in the sugar they contained. Dr. Cullen asserts that the free use of sugar prevents malignant fevers. The French physicians were the first to discover, that good sugar would cure the scurvy and that bad sugar would produce it. Dr. Fothergill and Sir John Pringle ascertained that the plague never visits those countries where good sugar is liberally used as a diet. Dr. Tronchin owed his great celebrity to *eau sucré*, his principal remedy for most of the complaints he was called on to treat. The famous Dr. Dutrone considered good cane sugar "as the panacea of life, the invigorator of infancy, the restorer of health, the renovator of old age, and the best thing to soften the skin and to improve the complexion."

Travelers inform us, that those around the throne of the king of Cochin-China are compelled to eat a certain portion of sugar or sugar-cane daily, in order to preserve their good looks. I knew a widow lady, the owner of a plantation north of the thirty-second parallel of latitude, who had always a large patch of sugar cane, ostensibly for the benefit of the negro children; but perhaps also for her own benefit, as the older she got the younger she looked. She may have looked into the history of Cochin-China; at any rate her success in growing excellent cane, so far north, was one fact which convinced me, that there must be some error in the prevalent opinion in regard to the climate most suitable for the cane culture.

Cane sugar, or that essential salt of pure cane juice scientifically called *dextrogyrate sugar*, from its solution rotating polarized light to the right, being a vital product, like flesh and blood, is governed by similar laws as soon as vitality is extinguished. The same rules and principles which apply to the preservation of the flesh of slaughtered animals, apply with all their force to the making of good sugar. Perfect cleanliness and *dispatch* are even more necessary in making good sugar than good pork. Cold weather, to prevent the rapid decomposition from occurring, which always takes place in the juice in hot, moist weather, if not immediately converted into crystallized sugar, is as necessary when the canes are cut as when hogs are killed. We often hear of hard frosts injuring the cane. It is not the frost or cold weather, but the warm weather after the frost, which does the damage. The hardest freeze will not hurt ripe cane, providing it be ground before a thaw, and immediately converted into sugar. In this it resembles the flesh of slaughtered animals. It is not the freeze, but the thaw, which would spoil the meat if left uncured. Hence the reason of the remarkable fact, that better sugar is made in Louisiana than in the West Indies; and better high up in the central portion of the state, where the cold is more uniform, than low down on the southern border, where the rains are more frequent and the thaws more rapid, spoiling the juice before it can be converted into sugar.

No other saccharine matter than dextrogyrate or vital sugar, rotating to the right, is contained in mature healthy cane But as soon as the canes are cut, whether the juice be expressed or not, chemical changes begin to occur, if the weather be hot and moist, in the saccharine liquor,

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unless the sugar be speedily separated from the foreign substances with which it is mixed by lime water. Instead of putrifying, like dead animal matter, fermentation takes place, and the *dextrogyrate* is converted into a *lævagyrate*, or chemical sugar rotating to the left. In common language this is called molasses, or uncrystallizable sugar.—The refiner's art can convert it into glucose, and make it assume the solid crystalline form, looking pretty and white, and rotating to the right again; but no art can ever re-convert it into good, healthy, and nutritious cane-sugar. Louisiana molasses consists mostly of dextrogyrate sugar, in the form of syrup; while the West India article is mostly composed of lævagyrate or uncrystallizable sugar, the product of fermentation. Hence, for table use, Louisiana has nearly driven the West India molasses out of the market.

There is a popular error, very prevalent, that because the cane, when planted, will continue to produce ratoon cane for twenty years or more in the West Indies, without planting the same land again, that those islands possess a decided advantage over any of our southern states, where the cane will only ratoon three or four years and requires to be planted every fourth year. But this is only a theoretical and not a practical advantage. The practice in the West Indies, particularly on the thin soils and on old estates, is to plant the same land every third year; whereas in Louisiana the common practice is to plant only every fourth year. (See Porter on the Sugar Cane, 2d London edition, 1843.) There can be no practical advantage to the West India planter, in the fact that cane will ratoon for a greater number of years in the tropical than in the temperate zone, as no labor is saved—the cane having to be planted as often in the one as in the other by those wanting to make good crops. The tropical planter, who depends upon the ratoon cane, after the fourth year loses more sugar than would twice pay the value of the labor saved. On fresh rich land the ratoons will give a tolerable yield the fifth or sixth year—but, on most of the land in the West Indies, great loss is sustained if the cane be not planted even oftener than is found necessary in Louisiana.

Another supposed advantage of the tropical planter over the American, is the fact that the cane can be planted every month in the year and ground at any time which suits the convenience of the planter. But this, according to Porter, Wray, and the best authorities, is no advantage at all, because all those who pursue the practice of planting at any time and grinding at any time, make the most indifferent crops and the most inferior sugar. Within the tropics, or below the region of frost, the dry season has to be chosen for grinding, and the planting season has to be chosen with a view of giving the young plant the benefit of the rainy season. In Louisiana, the grinding or rolling season begins with the first cold or frosty weather and ends on or before Christmas. The quicker the grinding season is over the better. Cold weather matures the cane and prevents what is called the second growth, so apt to spoil the sugar in tropical climates, and even in Louisiana, if the autumn be hot, cloudy, and moist, instead of cold, dry and frosty. The cold of October, November and December, so much dreaded by the theorist, and which politicians, opposed to the acquisition of Cuba, or any territory further South, use as a bugbear to frighten our people with a belief that they never could compete, successfully, in making sugar with the inhabitants of hotter countries, if admitted into the Union on an equal footing with us,—is the very thing which every planter and overseer begins to pray for, from the middle of October onward, until the cane is manufactured into sugar. Cold is, therefore, an advantage, instead of a disadvantage; and if sugar can be made cheaper in the East Indies, or any where else, it is because labor is cheaper, and the laborers are not fed and clothed so well as the Louisiana negroes.

The people of the United States, particularly our politicians, editors, reviewers, lawyers, divines, merchants and agriculturists, seem to be acquainted with every art and science, every product of the soil, and every branch of industry, better than with sugar, or the habits and nature of the plant from which it is produced. Medical standard authorities are seldom consulted by the classes just named: hence, physicians ought to be heard.

The superiority of Louisiana sugar is not attributed to its true cause—superiority of soil and climate; but to some superiority in the culture of the cane,

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and its manufacture into sugar. The fact is, however, that, with a few exceptions, Louisiana is behind instead of ahead of most other sugar-growing countries, in machinery and the facilities afforded by art and science for the production of sugar; so says Prof. M'Culloh. The text-book of most of the sugar-makers of Louisiana was published in 1732, the year that Washington was born. Most of them have no book at all, but make sugar by the traditional knowledge derived from the Spanish work above alluded to. The American plow has been made to supersede much of the hoe work in the culture of the cane, and the steam engine has been substituted in the sugar mill for horse-power; but, in other respects, few or no improvements, until a very recent period, and only very partially adopted, have been made upon the Spanish practice in vogue a century and a half ago, while the English in the East Indies and the West, Demerara, Mauritius, Australia, and throughout every colony where cane will grow, have pressed into their service all the improvements in the arts and sciences, and encouraged men of learning and genius, by the most tempting rewards, to lend their aid to that extensive association of nobles, plebeians, priests and politicians, who are leagued together to monopolize the sugar culture, and to reap all the profits to be derived from the most valuable agricultural product the earth produces, the Americans have been standing still, unconscious that they occupy the best sugar region on the globe, and have only to adopt the modern improvements in the culture and manufacture of the cane to gain at once the prize, which Great Britain and the East India Company have, for more than half a century, been straining every nerve to obtain. It was to encourage the culture of the cane and cotton plant in India, and to set one hundred and fifty millions of people to work for a few in a distant island, that slave labor in the West Indies was abolished.

To prevent America from continuing to be a competitor in tropical products, an organized system of agitation, about the time of West India emancipation, was set on foot in England by the East India Company, to overthrow slave labor in the cotton and sugar growing states of the union. The disgusting work, Uncle Tom's Cabin, would never have been reprinted, or a dozen copies sold, in moral England, if the statesmen, gentry, and nobility of that island did not look upon it as a device calculated to serve their purpose, in turning public sentiment against that species of American labor, whose products come in competition with those produced in the immense colonial possessions of Great Britain, in the east, and throughout the world. Happily, however, for the interests of mankind, Americans are beginning to perceive that British East India philanthropy for American negroes consists in a desire to monopolize those rich Southern staple commodities—the products of negro labor, by tying the negro's hands, under the name of freedom, and sending him back to that barbarism, want and wretchedness, from which the patriarchal government, called slavery, rescued him. A few of our planters, however, are beginning to avail themselves of the advantages to be derived from pressing into the service of the sugar interest the science of medicine, and the modern discoveries in the arts and sciences, so long in the hands of the English and French. They have even improved on the French and English in the art of manufacturing sugar. The best sugar in the world is now made in Louisiana, by what is called "*the first process*," directly from the fresh cane juice, nothing but Avequin's lime water being used as a clarifier. In three or four days, a perfectly pure, crystallized white sugar is manufactured, drained, dried, and put up ready for market, from the fresh juice, as it runs from the mill. Lapice, Armat, Lesseps, Degruy, Levois, Zeringue, Hulett, Urquhart, Lanfear, Morgan, Davenport, Benjamin, Packwood, are a few of those who are making sugar according to the most approved method, and who have added many improvements themselves. Their method is spreading among the planters throughout the state, and will not only supersede the old (1732) Spanish method, which converts a large portion of the vital into chemical, sickly sugar, but will carry the culture of the cane to 32½° north, and perhaps further. With a few year's governmental encouragement to the sugar interest, to enable our planters to provide themselves with the improved machinery, such as is now in successful operation on the plantations of the above-named gentleman, America would drive the East and West India sugar out of market, and greatly benefit mankind,

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by giving them the purest, most wholesome, and nutritious article of diet the earth produces.

Those who wish to test the practicability of growing good cane in any latitude in the United States below thirty-five degrees, should plant the cane at the same time that Indian corn is planted in the particular latitude where the experiment is made. Good rich land should be selected. That which produces the best corn will generally produce the best cane. The cultivation of the two plants is very nearly the same. In the vicinity of New-Orleans the cane is planted in January or February, and comes up early in March. In about 7½ months from the time of sprouting, it begins to mature sufficiently to be cut and converted into sugar. In higher latitudes its maturity is hastened by the cold weather. The canes roasted in the fire, and the juice sucked while it is hot, is an excellent remedy for coughs and bad colds. The juice eaten with parched corn, is a popular and valuable remedy for dyspepsia. Nature seems to have implanted so strong a love for cane juice in children, as if it were on purpose to defend them against the evils produced by decayed teeth and worms. Whether sugar be made from the juice or nut, a patch of cane, on every plantation where it will come to maturity, would be more than worth the ground it may occupy and the trouble of cultivation. Such experiments would also do much in determining the important agricultural question: "*How far north the culture of the cane plant can be profitably extended in the United States?*"

ART. II.—SALUBRITY OF CITIES RESTORED BY THE INTRODUCTION OF PURE AIR.

[SEVERAL years ago (April, 1842,) there appeared a paper in the Southern Quarterly Review, entitled "Refrigeration and Ventilation of Cities," which was attributed to Dr. Gurrie, of Florida. The writer concluded with these words—"While it must be conceded that we are able to cool a city to any degree required by the habits, comfort and health of its inhabitants, it must also be acknowledged that we have the capacity to regulate the quantity of moisture it may hold in solution, and thus diminish, and probably remove, two fertile sources of disease in all climates." The mode of effecting these results he proposes is by the construction of machinery for the compression of air. "We propose," he says, "to effect the compression of air by means of water, wind, or steam-power, into suitable reservoirs in the suburbs of cities, and thence to transmit it through conduits, like water or gas, so that it may be distributed and set free in the houses, and even in the streets and squares of the city."

The paper which we now publish contains many views which are equally novel, and as they relate to a matter of much public interest in the South and West, we give them a place, remarking at the same time that the germs of many a great truth lie often at the bottom of what seems at first sight but speculation, and that the head of the corner has often been constructed from the once rejected stone of the builder. We are willing to give our contributor a hearing, and to open, through our pages, the discussion of the subject to the scientific.]—EDITOR.

Impure air being the great fountain of disease, more than any, perhaps all other causes, I have felt that this rock from which the waters of bitterness have so long and copiously flowed, has been too much neglected by the learned. Analysis has failed to detect the subtle poison lurking in this universal fluid; the most powerful microscope has been unable to discover the invisible arrows of death, constantly flying on the wings of the wind; and though chemistry professes, I believe, to be able to disinfect the universal element, when tainted by unsalubrious substances, yet it has been put to but little practical use in protecting mankind from the evils of a contaminated atmosphere.

The efforts of the scientific having been so barren of results, it seems that the only hope of relief for suffering humanity is in simple, but untried mechanical means.

Writing from a secluded district, remote from books, I recollect having read, but cannot now tell where, how the London club-houses are ventilated with a salubrious atmosphere, by first passing through water the air intended for circulation in their crowded apartments. This is the only instance which I now remember to have heard of purification

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by mechanical, or, perhaps, *this* should be called chemical means.

I wish to direct attention to a process more simple still. Instead of endeavoring to purify a contaminated atmosphere, I would, by mechanical agency, bring, where most needed, one already pure.

Millions of men are compelled not only to work during the day, but to sleep during the night, in infected air, though there may be, within a few hundred feet of their apartments, an inexhaustible supply of the pure uncontaminated article to be had, if not for the asking, for the bringing, by very simple means.

Air is known to be cooler, and believed—perhaps I might say *known*—to be purer the higher we ascend from the earth. Miasma, the great infecting substance, is known, by experience, to be more dangerous during night than the day. It is known, that men may remain, during the day, in a malarious district with impunity, provided they sleep at night in a salubrious atmosphere.

The well-known principles of pneumatics teach us, that air may be forced through a tube, of any length, from one point to another. We see this operation constantly performed by steam and other power. In the English coal mines, pure air is forced through them, from above ground, sometimes for miles, by the power of steam. In like manner, air is forced through tubes, to supply those working in diving bells. I learn, from the Génie Industriel, through that excellent paper, The Scientific American, that the Northern Hospital of France is ventilated in the following manner: "The air is taken from a tower on the top of the building, so as to be always pure, and in summer cool. It is sent inside in a quantity invariably equal, and of the same power, by numerous apertures in the centre of the rooms, which it passes along from one end to the other, and issues by eighteen orifices, without its action being neutralized by opening one or all the windows." And we see it every day, by human muscles, forced through the pipes of hand and blacksmith's bellows. Sometimes fire is used as the most convenient propelling agent. The large apartments of the British parliament-house are supplied with fresh air by this agent, through ventilating chimneys. As it is expelled by the rarefaction of the fires in those at one end, to supply the vacuum, it is drawn down and through the rooms from those at the other, as, in cold weather, it is drawn whistling through the key-holes and other small apertures of our rooms while blazing fires are in the chimneys.

Now let your sleeping apartments be made air-tight, and any common lathed and plastered room may be made close enough for this purpose. Let it be connected with one end of a tube, the other of which shall extend into the air to such an altitude as will reach a pure current. By means of fire, or some other propelling power, the air may be forced out of the room opposite the end where it enters through the tube, giving a pure circulation at such times as may be desired. The height to which the ventilating tube will have to be carried to reach a salubrious region must depend on experience, but I have no doubt, in most localities, it would be found at the upper extremity of such a mast as could be raised at a trifling expense. It is said to have been noticed, when the cholera was in Montreal, that meat became putrid in less time than usual; but some hung upon one of the steeples of the city escaped the rapid change. In some of the great plagues which have desolated most of the large cities of the world, their violence became mitigated in those subjects who occupied the upper stories of the houses.

But suppose that neither by masts nor towers nor other contrivance, we can penetrate the regions of purity, we know that in the neighborhood of most miasmatic districts and large towns are salubrious places, where the air is healthy near the earth, and which can be reached by horizontal tubes of sufficient extent. To perpendicular tubes, the main objection is the uncertainty of reaching an unadulterated region. To horizontal, the expense only is to be considered, purity can *always be known*. The expense would depend upon the distance the air would have to be carried and population to be supplied. The simplest material would answer for ventilating tubes, such as that of which our common stone jugs are made, glass, and many other cheap substances. Even a common tunnel, or covered ditch, coated with a proper cement, with solid tubes to span or pass through or under water, would, I have no doubt, dispense with any

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other, except connecting tubes at each end. Such water as might percolate through the cement and collect at the lowest points could be let off in the day-time, or received through the valves of covered wells to be sunk at such places. And when we consider that the ditch, as a tube itself, or to receive a glass or other tubes, need be only of such depth as to secure it from injury, and give an equable temperature to the air; that it can follow the undulations of the earth's surface; and that covering with the earth would make the joints of the tubes air tight, the expense would be inconsiderable for the benefits that would be obtained in many towns and rich miasmatic districts, by the use of pure air thus brought from adjacent hills. When brought for the use of towns, in one common tube, the air could be distributed to the various dwellings in the way so common in the distribution of water. Each dwelling could have its own power to compel the circulation of the pure fluid, through its apartments; or by other pipes, connecting with one common reservoir or main tube, one power could be used for the whole town. The air approaching the town by a common trunk could be made to ramify so as to furnish every house requiring it, and then, by connecting with another, common to all, would make its exit by the force of a common power. In districts with a scattered population, a large common trunk for conducting, and small pipes for distributing the fluid through the neighborhood, might be used for all, but the power could not be common.

To those who look on difficulties as impossibilities, judgment of condemnation has, no doubt, been pronounced by such as may have read thus far. But the considerate who will deliberately hear and investigate before condemning, will fairly consider the legitimate question, properly propounded, in all enterprises,—"Will it pay?" Will the advantages to be derived authorize the trouble and expense? No certain estimate of expenses can be made; but from what has been said, they would be inconsiderable. The nearest data in my power is the expense of under-draining wet lands by the use of tiles. In England they lay pipes one and a half inch bore three feet below the surface for less than sixty dollars per mile. If ventilating pipes of sufficient bore to serve a population of five or ten thousand should cost ten, twenty, or even forty times this sum per mile, in many places, it would be the best investment that could be made. When once laid, the tubes would need no repairs during the generation that might perform the task. As the air usually needs be forced through them during but a few months in the year, and at night only, the propelling power could cost but little. I have been considering the expense of bringing air from a distance of miles. If it can be reached by perpendicular tubes the expense may be considered of but small account compared to the benefits expected.

Individuals relying on fire for the moving power need expend no more for fuel than would be usual for warming their rooms in winter. In the French hospital before mentioned the most economical means—such as the use of hot water, stones, etc.—are used to warm the six wards of the establishment, costing during the winter $2,805, while the cost for ventilation during summer is but $935. Indeed, of so little account is the expense of ventilation for the "whole year," that it is estimated to "cost nothing," inasmuch as the steam engine used pays for itself in the performance of other services. Much more can we hope that steam or water-power, sufficient to ventilate the sleeping apartments of a large town during night and for a few months only, would cost almost nothing, as it could be used for mechanical purposes during the day without interruption.

It is hardly necessary to notice that the ventilating fires could be placed in one of a suit of rooms, or the inmates so shielded as to protect them from uncomfortable heat in warm weather.

If the expense of procuring the invaluable commodity be uncertain, but *must* be small, the benefits, when obtained, are likewise uncertain, but *must* be great. Great as is the value of pure air, it cannot be reduced to dollars and cents any more than health can be reduced to a money value. But we can make some estimate of its importance by considering its influence on property. Besides their profits to the stockholders, we estimate the worth of rail-roads by the enhanced value they give to contiguous property, and this is, to a country, the great and main element of wealth in those improvements. For every dollar they are valuable to their owners, they

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are of ten to those who use them. Many millions worth of real estate, both in town and country, would be doubled in value, could they be made secure against the annual and occasional visitations of epidemics engendered by bad air. One tenth of the sums paid by those living in such infected districts, for their annual migrations in search of salubrious air, would bring it to their permanent homes.

For want of a few mouthfuls of pure air, large tracts of the most fertile portions of the globe now lie waste under the viewless poison that broods over their teeming surfaces.

Artificial ventilation would protect, not only against periodical contaminations of the air, but those epidemics which run to and fro the earth on the trackless air, with woe and desolation in their train, might often be defied. Surrounded by the pure air brought from above, on the distant hills, the prudent citizen could, like Noah in his ark, be in security, while consternation reigned without.

Besides the general preservation of health, the use of air in the way above indicated, might be made for other purposes hardly less valuable.

It might be made a most efficient agent in the restoration, as well as preservation of health. In the way directly noticed, a patient could have his room, in summer as well as winter, of any desired temperature, could have a dry or moist atmosphere, and for the cure of many diseases, foreign particles might be added, carrying healing on its wings to diseased humanity. Dr. Cartwright, in the last December number of this Review, tells us how important the vapor of sugar boilers is in some fatal diseases. Instead of sending invalids thousands of miles from their comfortable homes to inhale the saccharine vapor amidst the discomforts of a sugar-house, a few canes, sent even to the coldest latitudes, with a very simple contrivance, added to the ventilating pipes before mentioned, might be made to infuse their healing particles, in graduated quantities, through the most luxurious apartments.

It is manifest, this forced ventilation might be made to minister greatly to the comfort, nay, the luxury of our race. The ventilating pipes should be laid so deep in the earth as to obtain an equable temperature winter and summer. By passing them through proper mediums the temperature could receive any modification desired. A spiral tube passing through the water at the bottom of a well, with ice added, if necessary, would lower it, or through fire or other warm medium, raise it sufficiently for all purposes of comfort or health. The same fire might warm as well as expel the air from an apartment. This kind of ventilation would be most used in warm latitudes where insects are so annoying and sometimes dangerous to existence. The air-tight sleeping apartments necessary to exclude impure air would cut off these troublesome intruders.

Science would also come in for its share of benefits. It would test the power of various fluids to disinfect the air in its passage through them. By experience we could soon know to what height the air is usually contaminated with impurities, what pestilence walketh in darkness, and the destruction that wasteth at noonday, and many other secrets of the viewless and mysterious air.

There can be no doubt but that more than half the ills which flesh is heir to are born of adulterations of the inoderous air. There is a plan by which this great source of human calamity may be greatly mitigated if not entirely exterminated; and though new, it does not rest on speculation. That air can be, and is moved from one place to another, is as certain as that water can be made to change its position; that it can be moved without being contaminated by the surrounding impure air is equally certain; and, I apprehend, no one will doubt that, whether breathed in a bedroom, on the hills, or two or three hundred feet from the earth, it is equally inoffensive to our lungs, and healthy to our systems.

We form large companies with heavy capitals to supply our cities with gas, to send to the hills for pure water and distribute them through pipe to our houses. With much less expense the more necessary air might be brought to our rooms to be used like water by the turn of a faucet. We bore the solid earth many hundred feet for water of a quality to suit our fancy, and by tubes conduct it uncontaminated through intervening currents to our dwellings. With half the expense, and to half the number of feet, we might tube the empty air to those regions which would furnish a

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fluid whose purity is of as much, if not more importance, to our healthy existence, than unadulterated meat and drink. But the tell-tale impurities of food and drink usually give warning to the senses, the taint of corruption or adulteration is made manifest in their use, while the subtle poison may lurk concealed in the invisible and inodorous air, as the unconscious subject regularly, as the pulsations of his heart, inhales disease and death. We no doubt appreciate meat and drink the more because their use gives a sensible enjoyment or pain, while the tasteless air gives no indication of its quality.

Knowing how most discoveries and improvements have surpassed the expectations of the most sanguine; how the propulsion of water-craft by steam power was considered a humbug from the time of Watt to the 7th of August, 1807, when those who went to deride remained to admire the facility with which the Clermont started on the first steam voyage up the Hudson river; how rail-roads, even after many miles, in the United States, had been put in operation, were pronounced failures by the croaking public, and how the theories of almost all projectors have, in the end, fallen short of practical results, no plausible improvement should be abandoned without a fair trial.

I believe it was Theodore Hook who, when asked, on entering a university, if he was prepared to subscribe the thirty-nine articles, replied, "Forty, if you please." So it seems we would be nearer right to expect more from the improvements of the day than what is required of us. For there is much yet to be known of which our philosophy has not dreamed.

ART. III.—THE CITY OF LOUISVILLE, KENTUCKY.

As incidents in the history of individual life form the basis of observational philosophy, so the histories of particular cities become the groundwork of the most accurate general system of mercantile investigation, or, as Saunderson expresses it, of "Merchandry."

The cities of America are distinguished in a remarkable particular, in connection with the light they throw upon the philosophy of trade and commerce, from the cities of Europe, growing out of the fact, that they are, almost without exception, the children of commercial necessity. Cities in Europe have frequently grown up from other causes. The residence of kings, the salubrity of certain localities, and other romantic considerations, enter into the elements, and of course form a part of the history of European towns. But the history of an American city is a legible line in the history of trade. An American city, as a general rule, receives its birth, its continual growth and advancing prosperity from the one and common parent of commerce. To this general observation the city of Louisville is no exception. It became a town because of the falls. The falls in the Ohio river arrested the course of navigation, and made a stoppage there necessary. This stoppage produced commercial wants—commercial wants, a city.

The city of Louisville, in the State of Kentucky, is situated on the Ohio River, opposite the falls of the river, on a plain well suited to the purpose, about seventy feet above the level of the river, lon. 85° 30′ west; lat. 38° 3′ north. The soil is sandy, extremely fertile, and resting upon a substratum of rich clay. It is laid out with considerable regularity, the principal streets running parallel with the river, and being intersected by others at right angles. It has a present population of 51,726:—

In the	year 1800 the population was...	600
"	1820.....	4,000
"	1840...	21,000
"	1850, over	50,000

These are striking results.

The first owners of the lands at the falls were John Campbell and John Conally. They were patented to them probably as bounty lands. But the first settlement having anything like a permanent character was made in 1778, by Col. G. R. Clark, a name of some distinction in the early history of Kentucky.

Clark's instructions came from the celebrated Patrick Henry, the Gov. of Virginia, and are dated Virginia—Sct. In council, Williamsburg, Jan. 22, 1778.

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A few families were located by him upon Corn Island, opposite Louisville. Some conception of the nature of the danger and singular hardihood of the early settlers of this state may be derived from the fact, that these few families were removed into the heart of an Indian territory, several hundred miles from the nearest point of protection from their countrymen, and when the intervening country was filled with a savage foe.

There is probably no country in the world where the lovers of local or individual adventure—the contests of man with his savage brother in the fierce excitement of the individual death struggle, with all its thrilling but minute particulars, can be gratified to the same extent, both in the number and excitement of the incidents, as in the State of Kentucky. The early settlement of the country was characterized by conflicts between individual members of the two distinct races, or by small parties of each, rather than by any one general decisive engagement by which wars are usually terminated. But the Kentucky war was a war of extermination, more properly carried on by the individual members of the two races, than by any decisive settlement of subsisting disagreements in a general fight. It was a war ever beginning, and never ending. In no country in the world probably have human beings shot down human beings with a more evident gusto and more complete absence of remorseful visitings of conscience.

The following passages from an enactment of the General Assembly of Virginia, passed in May, 1780, for "establishing the town of Louisville at the falls of Ohio," may not be without interest.

"Whereas sundry inhabitants of the *county of Kentucky* have, at a great expense and hazard, *settled* themselves upon certain lands at the falls of Ohio, *said to be* the property (thus reads the act) of John Conally, and have laid off a considerable part thereof into half-acre lots for a town, and having *settled* thereon, have preferred petitions to this general assembly to establish the said town. *Be it therefore enacted*, that one thousand acres of land, being the forfeited property of said John Conally, adjoining to the lands of John Campbell and Richard Taylor, be and the same is hereby vested in (sundry trustees) to be by them, or any four of them, laid off into lots of half an acre each, with convenient streets, and public lots, which shall be, and the same is hereby *established a town* by the name of Louisville." Thus, we perceive, the city of Louisville in the county of Kentucky became a town by authority of the General Assembly of the State of Virginia. The statute proceeds further to enact "that after the said lands shall be laid off into lots and streets, the said trustees, or any four of them, shall proceed to sell the said lots, or so many of them as they shall judge expedient, at public auction, for the best price that can be had, the time and place of sale being advertised two months at the court-house of *adjacent counties;* the purchasers respectively to hold their said lots subject to the condition of building on each a dwelling-house, sixteen feet by twenty at least, with a brick or stone chimney, to be finished within two years from the day of sale." The statute proceeded to grant the amount of sale of lots over thirty dollars per acre to purposes of public improvement in the town, and to vest in the trustees the judicial power "to settle and determine all disputes concerning the bounds of the said lots; to settle such rules and orders for the regular building thereon as to *them* shall seem best and most convenient."

An important feature of the early geography of Louisville, was the many ponds of standing water, that so materially contributed to give the place the cognomen of the grave-yard. The first and most conspicuous, commencing at the present corner of Market-street, ran to Sixteenth-street. The next in size was known as Grayson's Pond, beginning on Centre-street, and running towards Seventh-street. The fish within this pond, its clear water, its edges covered with firm grassy turf, the many religious services of baptism performed in it, and the many promenades around it, evening and morning, by the élite of the city, made it quite a favorite; but it has given way in the progress of the city's wealth, and is now obliterated. Besides these, there were others of less magnitude scattered over the face of the country, that would well entitle the city, in the language of Mr. Cassedy, to be called an "archipelago, a sea full of little islands." These "have all been carefully drained, or filled up, and now the city will stand a favorable comparison in this regard, so closely connected

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with health, with any city in the world.

In proof of which, the following table, carefully made, will be full evidence.

In Louisville the deaths are			1	to	50
" Philadelphia,	"	"	1	"	36
" New-York	"	"	1	"	37
" Boston	"	"	1	"	38
" Cincinnati	"	"	1	"	35
" Naples	"	"	1	"	28
" Paris	"	"	1	"	33
" London	"	"	1	"	39
" Glasgow	"	"	1	"	44

In May, 1780, the General Assembly of Virginia divided the county of Kentucky into three counties respectively, the counties of Fayette, Lincoln, and Jefferson. In the latter county Louisville was situated. In the month of July, 1790, the convention of Kentucky met, and determined to accede to the offers of Virginia, with respect to the emancipation of the counties of Kentucky and their elevation to the position of an independent state. On the 14th of February, 1791, the act of Independence was passed by Congress. The new constitution for the new state was prepared in 1792. About this time terminated the hostilities of the Indians. The assessment of the town in 1809 was about $991.

In 1799, Louisville was declared by act of Congress to be a port of entry. This put an end to much smuggling, the city of New-Orleans then being in a foreign country.

Under the protection of the legislature of Kentucky, the town of Louisville was placed upon much more efficient police regulations than formerly, and many wise and salutary enactments were passed for the improvement of the town, the building public edifices, and a new survey and plot of the town were made out by legislative authority.

The town of Shippingport at one time threatened to rival Louisville in point of commercial importance. But its geographical position and the start which Louisville had already taken, were of themselves sufficient to defeat the very strenuous efforts that were made by private individuals, at great sacrifices, to build up this town. It is one of the many proofs that there is an under current regulating the business of city-making, that private wealth and enterprise cannot always govern or control.

The very interesting sketches of Louisville, published by Dr. McMurtrie, in 1819, gives us the following characteristic account of this Bois de Boulogne of Louisville :—

"This important place," says he, with that directness of detail so peculiar to the worthy Doctor, "is situated two miles below Louisville, immediately at the foot of the rapids, and is built upon the beautiful plain or bottom which commences at the mouth of Beargrass Creek, through which, under the brow of the second bank, the contemplated canal will in all probability be cut. The town originally consisted of forty-five acres, but it has since received considerable additions. The lots are 75 by 144 feet, the average price of which (1819) is from forty to fifty dollars per foot, according to the advantages of its situation. The streets are all laid out at right angles; those that run parallel to the river, or nearly so, are eight in number, and vary from 30 to 90 feet in width. These are all intersected by 12-feet alleys running parallel to them, and by fifteen cross-streets at right angles, each sixty feet wide. The population of Shippingport may be estimated at 600 souls, including strangers." It has greatly faded from its original promise, and is now little more than the faubourg of the city of Louisville. The canal spoken of by Dr. McMurtrie has been since completed.

The Louisville and Portland canal is about two miles in extent. The fall to be overcome is computed to be about twenty-four feet, produced by masses of lime-rock, through which the entire bed of the canal is excavated, a part of it to the depth of 12 feet overlaid with earth. The following description of this work, begun in 1826, and prepared for navigation in 1830, and costing $750,000, is taken from the Encyclopædia Americana—article, Louisville. It corresponds also precisely with a description given by Mr. Ben Casseday :—

"There is one guard and three lift locks combined, all of which have their foundation on the rock. There are two bridges, one of stone, 240 feet long, with an elevation of 68 feet to the top of the parapet wall, and three arches, the centre one of which is semi-elliptical, with a transverse diameter of 66, and a semi-conjugate diameter of 22 feet; the two side arches are segments of 40 feet span, the other is a pivot bridge, built over the head of the guard lock, and is of wood, 100 feet long, with a span of 52 feet, intended to open in time of high water as

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boats are passing through the canal. The guard lock is 190 feet long in the clear, with semi-circular heads of 26 feet in diameter, is 50 feet wide, and 42 feet high. The solid contents of this lock are equal to those of 15 common locks, such as are built on the Ohio and New-York canals. The lift locks are of the same width with the guard lock, 20 feet high and 183 feet long in the clear. The entire length of the walls, from the head of the guard lock, to the end of the outlet lock, is 921 feet. There are three culverts to drain off the water from the adjacent lands, the mason-work of which, when added to the locks and bridge, gives the whole amount of mason-work 41,989 perches, equal to about 30 common canal locks. The cross section of the canal is 200 feet at the top of the banks, 50 feet at the bottom, and 42 feet high, having a capacity equal to that of 25 common canals.

"The Louisville and Portland canal was completed and put in partial operation on the 1st of January, 1831, from which time up to June 1st of the same year, 505 boats of different descriptions passed its locks. A bank of mud at its mouth, which could not be removed last winter, from the too sudden rise of the water, will be removed at the ensuing period of low water, when the canal can be navigated at all times by all such vessels as navigate the Ohio. The Ohio, when the water is lowest, is not more than two feet deep in many places above and below the falls, and rises 36 feet perpendicular above the falls, opposite to the city, and 60 feet perpendicular rises have been known at the foot of the falls. An appropriation of $150,000 by the United States was made last winter (1830), by which the low places in the river are to be improved so as to give four feet of water, in low water, from its mouth to Pittsburgh.

"Louisville has been allowed by travelers and strangers," this same account continues, "to be one of the greatest thoroughfares in the Union. At least 50,000 passengers arrive here annually from below, and it is reasonable to conclude half that number pass through it descending. Great bodies of emigrants from the east and north pass through it, and it is not uncommon in the autumn to see the streets filled for days together with continued processions of *movers*, as they are called, going to the Great West."

Recurring again to the canal, it may be interesting to the curious to know that in excavating it there were found bodies of trees in a state of partial decay, many human skeletons in an astonishing condition of preservation, many implements of stone, and indeed some of wood, some of iron, are indicative of some advancement in the mechanic arts—some trees of cedar, not found anywhere in that region, together with fire-places and charred wood, or carbon. In a particular locality there were found many hundreds of flint arrow-heads, constructed by the Indians for purposes of hunting or defence.

Mr. Mann Butler informs us that many mineral springs, some of them possessing the invaluable ingredient of iron so much prized in cases of debility of the digestive apparatus, presented themselves in more places than one, during the excavation.—13,776 steamboats and 4,700 flats and keels had passed through the canal in 1843, the tolls of which amounted to $1,227,625 50.

Louisville became a city by an act of the Kentucky Legislature, passed 13th Feb., 1828.

Mr. Casseday informs us that "a writer in the Focus for January 20, 1829, gives an idea of the commerce of Louisville in regard to certain leading articles at this period." He says, that "from the 1st January, 1828, to 1st January, 1829, there were received and sold in this place 4,144 hogsheads of sugar and 8,607 bags and barrels of coffee, amounting in value to $584,681. He also fixes the inspections of tobacco in Louisville at 2,050 hhds. for 1826, 4,354 hhds. for 1827, and 4,075 hds. for 1828. The average price of these was—for 1826, $2 67, for 1827, $2 59, and for 1828, $1 98⅓. The whole value of these for the three years was $468,672 88. 1,140 of these were shipped to Pittsburgh, 3,048 to New-Orleans, 320 manufactured here, and 458 were stemmed.

A writer in the Kentucky Reporter also adds to this information the following statement: "The store-rooms of the principal wholesale merchants are larger and better adapted to business purposes than any to be found in the commercial cities of the East. Not a few of them are from 100 to 130 feet in depth by 30 wide, and from three to four stories high, and furnished with fire-proof vaults for the preservation of books

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and papers in case of fire. The wholesale business has increased very rapidly of late, perhaps doubled in the course of two years. The original dimensions of the canal were upon a scale entirely too small to admit of the passage of the larger class of steamers now built and being built for the New-Orleans trade. Hence the project of a rail-road from the upper portion of the falls to the termination, to be erected upon the Indiana side of the river, where the course will be level, has been for some time in serious contemplation. The object of this rail-road is to transport the steamers and other vessels too large to navigate the river. It is to be effected by means of a stationary engine about midway, from which pullies are to be fastened upon the boats, and in this way they are to be carried from the water above, along the line of the road, and laid upon rock, down to the water below. We may now expect this work to be completed within a short time, as all the stock has been taken and is greatly above par.

From the directory published by Mr. Otis, in 1832, we obtain the following particulars, interesting to the general merchant:

IMPORTS FROM DEC. 1, 1831, TO AUGUST 4, 1832.

Bale Rope	coils	26,830
Bagging	pieces	33,411
China, &c.	pkgs	1,170
Coffee	bags	18,269
Cotton	bales	4,913
Mackerel	bbls	12,037
Salt	"	16,729
Salt (Turk's Island)	bags	18,146
Tea	lbs	63,500
Flour	bbls	48,470
Hides	"	19,121
Iron	tons	631
Lead	"	231
Molasses	bbls	6,309
Nails	kegs	10,395
Sugar (N. O.)	hhds	7,717
" (Loaf)	bbls	3,118
Tinplate	boxes	3,108

14,627 barrels of whisky were inspected during this time.

One steam factory (woolen) employs 30 hands, and consumes 25,000 pounds of wool per annum.

One cotton factory employs 80 hands, and consumes 500 bales annually, and works 1,056 spindles.

Two potteries. One grist mill (steam). Two foundries employing 155 hands and consuming 1,200 tons of iron per annum. Sixteen brick yards. One steam planing mill, with two machines and two circular saws, planes, tongues, grooves, &c., about 2,000 feet of plank to each machine per day. Three breweries. Two white-lead factories consume 600 tons lead annually. Four rope walks, which work up 600 tons of hemp annually."

Every city has, at some time or other, its practical jokes. The following one is very amusingly narrated by Mr. Casseday, by whom a work of considerable merit, entitled the "History of Louisville," has been written, and from which we have drawn, quite largely, the materials of this article. Mr. Casseday does not think that the removal of the deposits from the banks, where they had been used as banking capital, very materially affected the happiness or the love of fun in the citizens, although the city fathers represented, in a grave memorial to the government, that "all is gloom and despondence, all uncertainty and suspense, all apprehension and foreboding. Prices here have fallen beyond any former example. Flour has sunk from $4 to $3 or even $2 50 per barrel. Hemp, pork, and every commodity has fallen in many instances 50 per cent."

The incident alluded to by Mr. Casseday, as his proof that this derangement in the monetary operations of commerce did not "throw a very deep or settled gloom over the community," "was the sudden appearance in the streets of the city of a very singular procession, since known as the *comical guards.* They were intended as a burlesque of the militia drills, then of biennial occurrence here. The procession was headed by an enormous man, rivaling Daniel Lambert in his superabundance of flesh, mounted on an equally overgrown ox, on whose hide was painted the following descriptive motto: 'The bull-works of our country.' This heroic captain also wore a sword of mighty proportions, on whose trenchant blade was written in letters of scarlet the savage inscription: 'Blood or ——.' This leader was followed by a band of equally singular characters, long men on short ponies, little boys on enormous bony Rozinantes, picked up from the commons; men inclosed in hogsheads with only head, feet and arms visible; men encased, even to helmet and visor, in wicker-work armor, and a thousand other knights of fanciful costume, and all marching with heroic steps to the martial clangor of tin pans, the braying of milk-horns, the

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shrill sound of whistles, the piping of cat-calls, and the ceaseless din of penny trumpets and cornstalk fiddles. The procession halted in its progress through the streets in front of the residences of the officers of the militia, and after saluting them with a flourish of music, made them a speech, and cheered them with a chorus of groans." The following is the table of churches:

	Congregations.	Usual attendance.	Value of property.
Baptist	5	2,200	$80,000
Episcopal	3	1,425	76,000
Methodist	17	5,900	109,000
Presbyterian	5	2,225	128,000
German Evangelical	4	1,200	21,700
" Lutheran	1	100	—
" Reformed	1	200	2,250
Disciples	2	520	18,000
Unitarians	1	240	1,200
Universalists	1	200	8,000
Roman Catholic	4	5,000	125,000
Jews	2	400	11,000
Total	46	19,610	$590,900

The following statistical information we extract from the work of Mr. Casseday, above alluded to: Louisville contains twenty-five exclusively wholesale dry-goods houses, whose sales are made only to dealers, and whose market reaches from Northern Louisiana to Northern Kentucky, and embraces a large part of the states of Kentucky, Indiana, Tennessee, Alabama, Illinois, Mississippi, and Arkansas. The aggregate amount of annual sales by these houses is $5,853,000, or an average of $234,000 to each house. The sales of three of the largest of these houses amount, in the aggregate, to $1,789,000. Neither this statement, nor those which follow, include any auction houses.

In boots and shoes the sales of the eight houses, of the above description, reach $1,184,000, or $148,000 to each house. The sales of the three largest houses in this business reach $630,000.

The aggregate amount of sales of eight houses in drugs, &c., is $1,123,000, or $140,375 to each house, and the sales of the three largest houses amount to $753,000.

The sales of hardware by nine houses amount annually to $590,000, being an average of $65,555 to each house.

The sales of saddlery reach $980,000, of which nearly one-half are of domestic manufacture.

The sales of hats and caps, necessarily including sales at retail, amount to $683,000.

The sales of queensware, less reliably taken, reach $265,000.

There are thirty-nine wholesale grocery houses, whose aggregate sales reach $10,623,400, which gives an average of $272,400 each. A brief statement of some of the principal annual imports in the grocery line will, perhaps, give a better idea of this business. The figures refer to the year 1850:

Louisiana sugar	hhds	15,615
Refined	p'kgs	10,100
Molasses	bbls	17,500
Coffee	bags	42,500
Rice	tierces	1,275
Cotton yarns	bags	17,925
Cheese	boxes	25,250
Flour	bbls	80,650
Bagging	pieces	70,160
Rope	coils	65,350
Salt (Kanawha)	bbls	110,250
" (Turk's Island)	bags	50,525

The following recapitulatory table will enable the reader to see at a glance all that has just been stated:

Description of business.	No. of houses.	Aggregate annual sales.	Av'ge sales of each house.
Groceries	39	$10,623,400	$272,400
Dry-Goods	25	5,853,000	234,000
Boots and Shoes	8	1,184,000	148,000
Drugs	8	1,123,000	140,375
Hardware	9	590,000	65,555
Queensware	6	265,000	44,166
Hats, Furs, &c.	8	683,000	85,375
Total	103	$20,321,400	$197,295

As a tobacco market, Louisville has attracted very much of the public attention. In respect to this article, it has some very striking advantages—convenience of access, coupled with the fact that, in the transportation of this article, purchasers at the North and East are not under the necessity of subjecting it to the trial of a sea voyage. Holders of tobacco are now satisfied that the sale of the article, at full prices, can be effected in this city without the slightest uncertainty or difficulty. Speculators, upon the other hand, and the regular trader, may confidently expect to find here a good assortment. The following table will show the steady increase in the article of tobacco since the year 1839.

There were received here	in	1839	1,295	hhds.
"	"	1842	5,131	"
"	"	1846	9,700	"
"	"	1851	11,300	"
"	"	1852	16,176	"

It is quite a common thing to see traders from portions of Virginia itself, from Western New-York, Northern Illinois, Ohio, Michigan, and Western Pennsylvania, and occasionally from other states. The eye of the philosophical merchant

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cannot but be directed to the wonderful changes that have been, and the greater that will yet be effected, in virtue of artificial channels of intercommunication. Hitherto the great lines of water communication have given character to the mercantile geography, or commercial aspect of a country. But now they are giving place to a more potent element of commerce in railroads and canals. It now becomes a question whether the tobacco and cotton planter, who resides in North Mississippi, in certain parts of Tennessee and Alabama, cannot put his hogshead of tobacco of the one, and his bale of cotton of the other, into the cities of the East, in less time and at a less cost by means of the now uninterrupted communication with those cities. The lake route, during the summer months, is uninterrupted. The Jefferson Rail-road begins to attract attention. The Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road being completed to Wheeling, produce of every kind can be carried to Philadelphia and New-York. The completion of this road will be followed by the establishment, as necessary sequences, of a regular line of steam packets from Louisville to Nashville, and to Memphis, and to Wheeling. Louisville is also a place of increasing attraction to the law and medical student. The University of Louisville can stand a respectable comparison with the very best in the country. It is now in high repute and in successful operation. There are names connected with the institution that have a reputation beyond the limits of the state.

"A short time ago," says the Louisville Courier of the 24th September, "we published a statement as prepared by Thomas S. Page, Esq., Auditor of the State of Kentucky, of the number of hogs six months old on the first day of January, 1852, in this state. The list was incomplete, as eight counties had not sent in their assessments. We now subjoin the full returns from every county in the state except Trimble:

Last Report	1,011,961
Madison county	27,462
Estill county	5,918
Mason county	11,294
Davies county	21,789
Union county	15,643
Woodford county	8,826
Jefferson county (Louisville)	20,362

The reader, curious with respect to the health of Louisville, may receive satisfactory information from the following extract from the Report of the Committee of Public Health of the Louisville Medical Society: "Since the year 1822 and 1823," says this report, "the endemic fevers of summer and autumn have become gradually less frequent; until within the last five or six years, they have almost ceased to prevail, and those months now are as free from disease, as those of any part of the year. Typhoid fever is a rare affection here, and a majority of the cases seen, occur in persons recently from the country. Some physicians residing in the interior of this state, see more of the disease than comes under the joint observation of all the practitioners of the city, if we exclude those treated in the hospital. Tubercular disease, particularly pulmonary consumption, is not so much seen as in the interior of Kentucky. Our exemption from pulmonary consumption is remarkable, and it would be a matter of much interest, if a registration could be made of all the deaths from it, so that we could compare them with those of other places. For the truth of the remark as to the extent and frequency of the diseases enumerated, we rely solely upon what we have observed ourselves, and upon what we have verbally gathered from our professional friends. This exemption of Louisville from disease, can be accounted for in no other way than from its natural situation, and from what has been done in grading, in building, and in laying off the streets.

"Louisville is situated on an open plain, where the wind has access from every direction; upon a sandy soil, which readily absorbs the water that falls upon it; susceptible of adequate drainings; supplied bountifully with pure limestone water, which is filtered through a depth of thirty or forty feet of sand; its streets are wide and laid off at right angles: north and south, east and west,—giving the freest ventilation, and the buildings compact, comfortable, and generally so constructed as to be dry and to admit freely the fresh air. It is situated upon the border of the beautiful Ohio, and environed by one of the richest agricultural districts in the world, supplying it with abundance of food and all the comforts and luxuries of life. It must, under the guidance of science and wise legislation, become, if it is not

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already, one of the healthiest cities in the world. Its proximity to the rapids of the Ohio may add to its salubrity; and it is certain that the evening breezes wafted over them, produce an exhilarating effect beyond what is derived from the perpetual music of a roar of waters."

Louisville has the reputation of having been the residence of one of the sweetest poets of America. Some of the poems of Amelia, the child of song, are written with unusual excellence, and are extremely creditable to her as a woman, as well as an evidence of high order of genius. With a little more experience, with a little more of the *masculine* of the mind—if we may say so—with a little deeper insight into the springs of human passion, and a higher range of philosophical feeling, she would have taken a permanent rank among those names that time enrolls for perpetuity. But her song, so full of melody, is now still in the grave. G.

[For other statistical information upon Louisville see previous volumes of Review, condensed into "Industrial Resources," articles, "Kentucky," Louisville," &c. See also Review of January, 1853, for an article upon the rates of freight and other expenses of shipment from Louisville by the rail-road, &c., to the North, and also by way of New-Orleans, in the same direction.]—Ed.

ART. IV.—PROGRESS OF THE REPUBLIC—THE CENSUS OF EIGHTEEN HUNDRED AND FIFTY.

(Continued fom our last No.)

Crime.—The statistics of crime form a subject of our investigation. From the returns it appears that the whole number of persons convicted of crime in the United States, for the year ending the first day of June, 1850, was about 27,000. Of these 13,000 were native, and 14,000 foreign born. The whole number in prison on the first day of June was about 6,700, of whom 4,300 were native, and 2,460 foreign. It will be borne in mind that the native prisoners include colored convicts, the number of whom it is impossible to state, as time has not sufficed to admit of the more particular separation into classes, other than native and foreign. Our criminal statistics, when fully understood, will present many subjects for reflection, and open a wide and interesting field for the study of the Christian, moralist, and statesman.

Real and Personal Estate.—Appended to our report will be found a table of the valuation of real and personal estate owned by individuals in each of the United States. This table, which fixes the wealth of our citizens at more that 7,133,000 of dollars, is made up from the official returns of property for the purposes of taxation. Where the assessment has been made on a sum less than the intrinsic worth, the assistant marshals were instructed to add the necessary per centage to bring it up to its true value. We are of opinion that the entire table falls short of the reality at least 20 per cent. For the purposes of taxation, especially on personal property, the full amount in value is not generally given in, and in rural districts, especially, all kinds of property are assessed at much less than their worth. The table does not represent stocks or bonds owned by the separate states, or by the general government. This return will be narrowly scrutinized, and will furnish matter for many a discussion on political economy. The value of slaves is included.

The following is the valuation of real and personal estate of the inhabitants of the United States for the year ending June 1, 1850:—

States.	Assessed value.	True or estimated value.
Maine	$96,765,868	$122,777,571
New-Hampshire	92,177,959	103,652,835
Vermont	71,671,651	92,205,049
Massachusetts	546,003,057	573,342,286
Rhode Island	77,758,974	80,508,794
Connecticut	119,088,672	155,707,980
New-York	715,369,028	1,080,300,216
New-Jersey*	190,000,000	200,000,000
Pennsylvania	497,039,649	722,486,120
Delaware	17,442,640	18,652,053
Maryland	208,563,566	219,217,364
District of Columbia	14,018,874	14,018,874
Virginia	381,376,660	430,701,082
North Carolina	212,071,413	226,800,472
South Carolina	283,867,709	285,257,698
Georgia	335,116,225	335,425,714
Florida	22,784,837	22,862,270
Alabama	219,476,150	228,304,332
Mississippi	208,422,167	228,951,180

* In New-Jersey, as the real estate only was returned, the above is partly estimated.

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States.	Assessed value.	True or estimated value.
Louisiana	$220,165,172	$233,908,764
Texas	51,027,456	52,740,473
Arkansas	36,428,675	39,841,025
Tennessee	189,437,623	201,246,686
Kentucky	291,387,554	301,638,456
Ohio	433,872,632	301,628,456
Michigan	30,877,223	59,787,255
Indiana	152,870,399	202,650,264
Illinois	114,782,645	156,595,006
Missouri	98,595,463	137,247,707
Iowa	21,690,642	23,714,638
Wisconsin	26,715,525	42,056,595
California†	22,123,173	22,161,872
	$5,998,983,281	$7,122,145,697
Territories.		
Minnesota (not returned in full)	——	——
New-Mexico	5,174,471	5,174,471
Oregon	5,063,474	5,063,474
Utah	986,083	986,083
Total	$6,010,207,309	$7,133,369,725

CHURCHES.—The assistant marshals were required to give an account of churches, including halls and chapels, if statedly used as places of public worship, belonging to all religious denominations. By the returns made, it appears there are 36,011 churches in the several states, and 210 in the District of Columbia and the Territories. The churches in California and the Territories are not fully returned, but the religious denominations in those places are not supposed to have possessed numerous or large buildings. The halls or school-houses which are used in many of the thinly settled portions of the country, and in cities by societies which are unable to build houses of worship for their own use, are not included. By the "aggregate accommodations" in the table, is meant the total number of seats for individuals in the churches. Under the "value of church property" is included the value of each of the churches and property owned by the different religious societies.

† Only thirteen counties in California are returned.

States.	No. of Churches.	Ratio of Churches to population.	Aggregate accommodations of Churches.	Average accom'dations in each state.	Total value of Church property.	Av'rge val. in each state.
Maine	851	685	304,447	358	$1,712,152	$2,012
New-Hampshire	602	528	233,892	389	1,401,586	2,327
Vermont	564	556	226,444	401	1,213,126	2,151
Massachusetts	1,430	695	682,908	478	10,205,284	7,137
Rhode Island	221	667	98,736	447	1,252,900	5,669
Connecticut	719	515	305,249	425	3,554,894	4,944
New-York	4,084	758	1,896,229	464	21,132,707	5,174
New-Jersey	807	606	344,933	427	3,540,436	4,387
Pennsylvania	3,509	658	1,366,413	446	11,551,885	3,297
Delaware	180	508	55,741	310	340,345	1,891
Maryland	909	641	390,265	429	3,947,884	4,343
Virginia	2,336	608	834,691	357	2,849,176	1,220
North Carolina	1,678	517	558,204	333	889,393	530
South Carolina	1,163	574	453,930	391	2,140,346	1,962
Georgia	1,723	525	612,892	356	1,269,159	737
Florida	152	507	41,170	271	165,490	1,088
Alabama	1,235	624	388,605	315	1,132,076	836
Mississippi	910	666	275,979	303	754,512	829
Louisiana	278	1,862	104,080	374	1,782,470	6,412
Texas	164	1,296	54,495	332	200,530	1,223
Arkansas	185	1,133	39,930	216	89,315	483
Tennessee	1,939	517	606,695	313	1,208,876	623
Kentucky	1,818	540	672,033	370	2,260,098	1,243
Ohio	3,890	509	1,447,632	372	5,765,149	1,225
Michigan	362	1,098	118,892	328	723,200	1,998
Indiana	1,947	507	689,330	354	1,512,485	777
Illinois	1,167	729	479,078	411	1,476,335	1,265
Missouri	773	882	241,139	312	1,558,590	2,016
Iowa	148	1,298	37,759	255	177,400	1,199
Wisconsin	244	1,250	78,455	322	350,600	1,437
California	23	7,173	9,600	417	258,300	1,123
Total	36,011	646	13,849,896	384	$86,416,639	$2,400

Denominations.	No. of Churches.	Aggregate accommodations.	Average accommodations.	Total value of Church property.	Av'age val. of property.
Baptist	8,791	3,130,878	356	$10,931,382	$1,244
Christian	812	296,050	365	845,810	1,041
Congregational	1,674	795,177	475	7,973,962	4,763
Dutch Reformed	324	181,986	561	4,096,630	12,644
Episcopal	1,422	625,213	440	11,261,970	7,919
Free	361	108,605	300	252,255	698
Friends	714	282,823	396	1,709,867	2,395
German Reformed	327	156,632	479	965,880	2,953
Jewish	31	16,575	534	371,600	11,987
Lutheran	1,203	531,100	441	2,867,868	2,383
Mennonite	110	29,900	272	94,245	856

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Denominations.	No. of Churches.	Aggregate accommodations.	Average accommodations.	Total value of Church property.	Av'age val. of property.
Methodist	12,467	4,209,333	337	14,636,671	1,174
Moravian	331	112,185	338	443,347	1,339
Presbyterian	4,584	2,040,316	445	14,369,889	3,135
Roman Catholic	1,112	620,950	558	8,973,838	8,069
Swedenborgian	15	5,070	338	108,100	7,206
Tunker	52	35,075	674	46,025	885
Union	619	213,552	345	690,065	1,114
Unitarian	2⅓3	136,367	565	3,268,122	13,449
Universalist	494	205,462	415	1,767,015	3,576
Minor Sects	325	115,347	354	741,980	2,283
Total	36,011	13,849,896	384	$86,416,639	$2,400

By the annexed tables it will be seen that the total value of church property in the United States, is $66,416,639, of which one half is owned in New-York, Massachusetts and Pennsylvania. In the tables we specify the principal out of more than one hundred denominations returned, although between some of these there are but slight shades of difference in sentiment, or form of church government. About thirty are returned as "African," thirty as "Independent," and twenty as "Protestant," without distinguishing them more particularly. These and all the churches not properly classed under the heads given, are included in "Minor Sects." All the varieties of Baptists, Methodists and Presbyterians are included under their general heads, except where distinctly specified.

There is one church for every 557 free inhabitants, or for every 646 of the entire population.

The average number the churches will accommodate is 384, and the average value is $2,400.

Churches are more numerous in proportion to the population, in Indiana, Florida, Delaware and Ohio, and less numerous in California, Louisiana and Iowa.

Those in Massachusetts are the largest, and have the greatest average value.

The preceding tables present interesting facts respecting the relative value and size of the churches in the several states, and those of different denominations. They also show the number of churches to the total population.

AGRICULTURE.—As agriculture is a branch of industry coeval with the history of mankind, its connection with the general welfare of the nation so intimate, its reciprocal bearing on manufactures so immediate, both admitted to form the base of prosperity and power of the people—as it is a branch of science, the prosperity of which, in all its resources, affects individuals of every order, and without which there could be no commerce, it has seemed proper, while exhibiting the actual condition of agricultural industry in the middle of the century, to present in connection therewith some history of the character, introduction and increase of the most important of the agricultural productions of our country, and of their former and present commercial consequence to ourselves and other governments. Realizing that all human life is dependent upon it, and that the earth would be nearly depopulated by a year's failure, nearly all the nations of the earth, from the remotest period, have maintained institutions preëminently calculated for the promotion of agriculture, honoring husbandry, and encouraging the advancement of the science.

Agriculture is now fostered by the nations of the continent of Europe; it is publicly taught in institutions designed for this special purpose, and in many of their colleges; and the result has been that, as formerly, while the ancients encouraged agriculture, and it received the attention of orators, and its praises and precepts were recited by the bards and sung by the poets, and monarchs participated in its labors, learning and agriculture went hand in hand, so that the greatest geniuses of the age identified themselves with its promotion; so in these later years, where properly fostered and encouraged, it has received the attention of some of the greatest intellects and scholars who have striven to throw most light upon this "grand art of rendering mankind happy, wealthy and powerful."

In view of what has been done by other nations, of the little which has been accomplished by the official documents of our country, and in view of the fact that we possess no regularly organized office for the dissemination of agricultural information, although such an establishment was urged by Washington, and many of his successors in office to

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the present time, it is hoped that the devotion to this subject of more space than needed for a mere table of figures representing our products of agriculture will be tolerated, and that you will approve the short history attempted for each of our great productions of agriculture, well calculated as such an account will be to make our people better acquainted with the importance of their productions reciprocally, and lead to a more general and perfect sympathy. The subject is one worthy a more able pen, and I would shrink from the task, conscious of inability to do justice to the subject, did I not suppose that this feeble effort may present points of practical value, for embellishment by those better adapted for the duty.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE NUMBER OF ACRES OF IMPROVED AND UNIMPROVED LAND, IN FARMS, CASH VALUE THEREOF, AND AVERAGE CASH VALUE PER ACRE IN EACH STATE, ETC.:

States.	Acres of improved land.	Acres of unimproved land in farms.	Total.	Cash value of land, improved and unimproved.
Maine	2,039,596	2,515,797	4,555,393	$54,861,748
New-Hampshire	2,251,488	1,140,926	3,392,414	55,245,997
Vermont	2,601,409	1,524,413	4,125,822	63,367,227
Massachusetts	2,133,436	1,222,576	3,356,012	109,076,347
Rhode Island	356,487	197,451	533,938	17,070,802
Connecticut	1,768,178	615,701	2,383,879	72,726,423
New-York	12,408,968	6,740,120	19,119,088	554,546,642
New-Jersey	1,767,991	984,955	2,752,946	120,237,511
Pennsylvania	8,628,619	6,294,728	14,923,347	407,876,099
Delaware	580,862	375,282	956,144	18,880,031
Maryland	2,797,905	1,836,445	4,634,350	87,178,545
District of Columbia	16,267	11,187	27,454	1,730,460
Virginia	10,360,135	15,792,176	26,152,311	216,401,441
North Carolina	5,453,977	15,543,010	20,996,987	67,891,766
South Carolina	4,072,651	12,145,049	16,217,700	82,431,684
Georgia	6,378,479	16,442,900	22,821,379	95,753,445
Florida	349,049	1,236,240	1,585,289	6,323,109
Alabama	4,435,614	7,702,067	12,137,681	64,323,224
Mississippi	3,444,358	7,046,061	10,490,419	54,738,634
Louisiana	1,590,025	3,939,018	5,529,043	75,814,398
Texas	639,107	14,454,669	15,093,776	16,398,747
Arkansas	781,531	1,816,684	2,598,215	15,235,245
Tennessee	5,175,173	13,808,849	18,984,022	97,851,212
Kentucky	11,368,270	10,972,478	22,340,748	154,330,262
Ohio	9.851,493	8,146,000	17,997,493	358,758,603
Michigan	1,929,110	2,454,780	4,383,890	51,872,446
Indiana	5,046,543	7,746,879	12,793,442	136,385,173
Illinois	5,039,545	6,997,867	12,037,412	96,133,290
Missouri	2,938,425	6,794,245	9,732,670	63,225,543
Iowa	824,682	1,911,382	2,736,064	16,657,567
Wisconsin	1,045,499	1,931,159	2,976,658	28,528,563
California	62,324	3,831,571	3,893,895	3,874,041
Minnesota Territory	5,035	23,846	28,881	161,948
Oregon	132,857	299,951	432.808	2,849,170
Utah	16,333	30,516	46,849	311,799
New-Mexico	166,201	124,370	290,571	1,653,952
Aggregate	**118,457,622**	**184,621,348**	**303,078,970**	**$3,270,723,093**

States.	Av'ge cash value per acre.	States.	Av'ge cash value per acre.
Maine	$12 04	Louisiana	$13 71
New-Hampshire	16 28	Texas	1 09
Vermont	15 36	Arkansas	5 88
Massachusetts	32 50	Tennessee	5 16
Rhode Island	30 82	Kentucky	6 91
Connecticut	30 50	Ohio	19 93
New-York	29 00	Michigan	11 83
New-Jersey	43 67	Indiana	10 66
Pennsylvania	27 33	Illinois	7 99
Delaware	19 75	Missouri	6 50
Maryland	18 81	Iowa	6 09
District of Columbia	63 03	Wisconsin	9 58
Virginia	8 27	California	0 99
North Carolina	3 23	Minnesota Territory	5 61
South Carolina	5 08	Oregon do.	6 58
Georgia	4 19	Utah do.	6 65
Florida	3 99	New-Mexico do.	5 69
Alabama	5 30	Average cash value per acre, including States, Districts, and Territories	$10 79
Mississippi	5 22		

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IMPROVED LAND.—The statement under this head in the agricultural table shows that the average quantity of improved land, by which is meant only such as produce crops, or in some manner add to the productions of the farmer, is about seven and one-third acres to each inhabitant; but as perhaps two-fifths of the population live in towns and villages, and are engaged in other pursuits than those of agriculture, the proportion of improved land to be assigned to each person occupying or working it may be assumed to be not less than twelve acres. In the New-England States, the average for the whole population is a little more than four acres to each person; in New-York and Pennsylvania, three and nine-tenth acres; in the other Middle States the same. In Virginia the proportion is about seven acres; in South Carolina, six acres; in Kentucky, twelve acres; and in Tennessee, five acres. The cash value of the farms in the United States is set down at $3,270,733,093.

UNIMPROVED LAND.—This return is to be understood as including the unimproved land connected with or belonging to those farms from which productions are returned. In the present unsettled state of large portions of the country, this classification is of less practical utility than it will become at a future day, when similar returns will enable us to form calculations respecting the quantity of land brought into requisition annually for agricultural purposes. The preceding table exhibits the quantity and value of the improved and unimproved land belonging to the farms and plantations of the several states, and of course it includes the value of the buildings thereon.

VALUE OF FARMING IMPLEMENTS AND MACHINERY.—For no stronger proof of the ingenuity and activity of the American mind need we search, than that developed in the readiness with which labor-saving expedients for carrying on the commonest operations in agriculture are discovered and applied. One hundred and fifty-one millions of dollars would appear to be at this time invested in implements and machinery for aiding and abridging the work of the hands in cultivating the earth and in preparing its produce for consumption. In most civilized countries of the old world, so great is the density of the population, and the prices of labor so low, as to create less necessity for such machines; and nowhere does the same amount of ingenuity appear to have been exercised in their preparation as is evinced with our mechanics and husbandmen.

In some portions of the old world where the necessity is felt and acknowledged by the intelligent, a predominating prejudice not unfrequently exists among others in the community against what is new, and prohibits the introduction of anything not stamped with the approval of their ancestors, nor covered with the venerable moss of antiquity. Here, however, no such sentiment influences the farmer to reject a useful invention.

No greater delight was enjoyed by foreigners in London, during the great Industrial Exhibition, than that by Americans on the trial of the reaping machines and the triumphant success of the American Reaper. Of the whole sum expended in articles of this character, New-York has invested $22,084,926; Pennsylvania, $14,722,541; Louisiana, $11,576,938 (perhaps to a great extent in machinery for crushing sugar-cane); Ohio, $12,750,585; Kentucky, $5,169,037; Virginia, $7,021,772.

DOMESTIC ANIMALS.—When we consider the social condition of nations, long congregated and civilized, and necessarily existing under the impulses of utilitarianism, it is not surprising that man, whether possessing a permanent abode, or having emigrated to a distant land, should become attached to those animals which have proffered to him their perfect obedience, sagacity, courage, strength, velocity, milk, fleeces, flesh, &c., and should regard them with admiration, gratitude, and even affection. Such, doubtless, was the case with most of the adventurers who first sought a new home on our shores, and brought with them those animals which would render them the most assistance and subserve the best purposes for clothing and food.

The first animals introduced into America from Europe were by Columbus, in his second voyage, in 1493. He left Spain as admiral of seventeen ships, bringing a collection of European trees, plants, and seeds of various kinds, a number of horses, a bull and several cows.

The first horses brought into any part of the territory at present embraced in the United States, were landed in Florida

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by Cabeza de Vaca, in 1527, forty-two in number, all of which perished or were otherwise killed. The next importation was also brought to Florida by De Soto, in 1539, which consisted of a large number of horses and swine, among which were thirteen sows, the progeny of the latter soon after increasing to several hundreds.

The Portuguese took cattle and swine to Newfoundland and Nova Scotia, in the year 1553. Thirty years after they had multiplied so abundantly, that Sir Richard Gilbert attempted to land there to obtain supplies of cattle and hogs for his crew, but was wrecked.

Swine and other domestic animals were brought over to Acadia by M. L. Escarbot, a French lawyer, in 1604, the year that country was settled. In 1608 the French extended their settlement into Canada, and soon after introduced various animals.

In 1609, three ships from England landed at Jamestown, in Virginia, with many emigrants and the following domestic animals, namely, six mares, one horse, six hundred swine, five hundred domestic fowls, with a few sheep and goats. Other animals had been previously introduced there. In 1611, Sir Thomas Gates brought over to the same settlement one hundred cows, besides other cattle. The year following Sir Ralph Lane imported some cows from the West Indies. In 1610, an edict was issued in Virginia prohibiting the killing of domestic animals of any kind on penalty of death to the principal, burning the hand and loss of the ears to the accessory, and twenty-four hours' whipping to the concealer.

As early as the year 1617, the swine had multiplied so rapidly in the colony that the people were obliged to palisade Jamestown to prevent being overrun with them. In 1627, the Indians near the settlement fed upon hogs, which had become wild, instead of game. Every family in Virginia, at that time, who had not an abundance of tame hogs and poultry, was considered very poor. In 1648, some of the settlers had a good stock of bees. In 1657, sheep and mares were forbidden to be exported from the province. By the year 1722, or before, sheep had somewhat multiplied, and bore good fleeces.

As early as 1629, the Plymouth colony of Massachusetts possessed cattle, goats, poultry and swine. Hence it may be concluded that their importation followed soon after the first settlement in 1620. In the year 1629, one hundred and fifteen cattle were brought over in the "Grand Embarkation," besides some horses and mares, several conies, and forty-one goats.

In 1750, the French of Illinois were in possession of considerable numbers of horses, cattle, and swine.

The present stock of the United States consists of the offspring of the animals first introduced into the country; the crosses of the original breeds with one another, or the intermixture of the progeny of these crosses with those of more recent importation and the pure-blooded animals brought directly from Europe, or the crosses of these with one another.

The principal breeds of horses adapted for specific purposes, in the middle, northern, and western states, are the Norman, the Canadian, the Morgan, the Conestoga, or Pennsylvanian, the Virginian, and the Kentuckian. For carriages of heavy draught, the Conestogas are regarded by many as the best. For the saddle, draught, and other useful purposes, the Morgans are highly prized, especially in New-York. For roadsters, the Normans and Canadians are frequently sought. For blood, the Virginians and Kentuckians generally take the lead.

Among the various races of cattle existing among us, where strict regard is paid to breeding, with a definite object in view, a preference is given to the Durhams or Short Horns, the Herefords, the Ayrshires, and the Devons. The Durhams, from their rapid growths, early maturity and capability of taking on fat, are adapted only for high keeping, or to the richest pastures of the middle and northern states, and those of Ohio, Kentucky, and other parts of the west. The males, when judiciously crossed with the other breeds, or with the common cows of the country, often beget the best of milkers, and for this purpose they have been especially recommended. The Herefords, on the contrary, from their peculiar organization, are better adapted for poor or indifferent pastures, and regions subject to continued drought; and for this reason they are well suited for California, New Mexico, Texas, and other parts of the South. The oxen of this breed are good in the yoke, and the

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cows, when properly fed, give an abundance of milk. The Ayrshires are best suited for a cool, mountainous region, or a cold, rigorous climate. They succeed well in Massachusetts, New-Hampshire, and Vermont, and are highly prized for their tameness, docile tempers, and rich milk. The Devons, from their hardihood, comparatively small size, and peculiar structure, appear to be adapted to almost every climate and to all kinds of pasturage. From their stoutness, good tempers, honesty, and quickness of action, they make the best teams, and in this respect their chief excellence consists. The cows make fair milkers, and their flesh very good beef. They also possess great aptitude to take on fat.

The kinds of sheep most sought for are the pure-blooded Merinos, the Saxons, the Cotswolds, the Leicestershires, the Oxfordshires, and the South Downs. The Merinos, including the Rambouillets, the Cotswolds, the Liecestershires, the Oxfordshires and the Saxons, are the most highly prized for their wool. The South Downs are particularly esteemed for the excellence of their flesh, and their wool is valuable for many purposes, on account of the facility with which it can be wrought.

The prevailing breeds of swine in the middle, northern, and western states are the Berkshire, the Leicestershire, the Suffolk, the Essex, the Neapolitan and the Chinese. From these and other varieties, various crosses have been produced, the more important of which are the Byfield, the Woburn, the Bedford, the Grass and the Mackay. The Neapolitans are particularly well adapted for a Southern climate.

In 1627, the plantations on James river contained about 2,000 head of horned cattle, goats in great abundance, and wild hogs in the forest without number. In 1639, there were in Virginia 30,000 cattle, 200 horses, and 70 asses; and in 1648, there were 20,000 cows, bulls and calves, 200 horses and mares, 50 asses, 3,000 sheep, 5,000 goats, swine, both tame and wild hens, turkeys, ducks and geese innumerable. There were exported from Savannah, in 1755, 48 horses and 16 steers and cows; in 1770, 345 horses, 30 mules and 25 steers and cows; and in 1772, 136 steers and cows. In 1820–1, there were exported from the United States 853 horses, 94 mules, 5,018 horned cattle, 11,117 sheep, and 7,885 swine; in 1830–1, 2,184 horses, 1,540 mules, 5,881 cattle, 8,262 sheep, and 14,690 swine; in 1840–1, 2,930 horses, 1,418 mules, 7,861 cattle, 14,639 sheep, and 7,901 swine; in 1850–1, 1,364 horses, 2,946 mules, 1,350 cattle, 4,357 sheep, and 1,030 swine.

According to the census returns of 1840, there were in the United States 4,336,669 horses and mules; 14,971,586 neat cattle, 19,311,374 sheep, and 26,301,293 swine; of 1850, 4,335,358 horses, 559,229 asses and mules, 28,360,141 horned cattle, (including 6,392,044 milch cows and 1,699,241 working oxen,) 21,721,814 sheep, and 30,316,608 swine.

Horses.—In the tables of 1840, horses, mules and asses were returned together; in those of the last census, the number of horses is given in one column and asses and mules in another. The increase in the aggregate number of these three classes of animals, during the ten years, was 559,053. It is presumed the greatest increase has occurred in the number of mules. Many suppose that the great extension of rail-roads has a tendency to dispense with the use of large numbers of horses; but one very good reason for the small apparent increase in the number of horses exists in the fact, that the enumeration of 1850 omits all in cities, and includes all or mainly such as are employed in agriculture or owned by farmers. In New-York, where there are less than a thousand mules, there appears to be a decline in the number of horses and mules together of 26,566; in Pennsylvania of about 13,000; in New-England of 17,000, or more than twenty-five per cent., while in all these states rail-road conveyance has almost superseded the use of horses for traveling purposes. On main routes we would more readily attribute the apparent diminution to the omission to enumerate the horses in cities and towns than to any superseding of horse-power, which the opening of rail-roads would often bring into requisition in various other operations. In Ohio, and the new states of the Northwest, the increase of horses has kept pace with that of the population. The four and a quarter millions of these noble animals in the United States constitute a proportion of one to five of the inhabitants. New-York has one horse to seven persons; Pennsylvania, one to six and six-tenths; Ohio, one to four; Ken-

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tucky, one to three free inhabitants. The number of horses in the United States is more than three times as large as that in Great Britain.

Asses and Mules.—As mentioned in the preceding paragraph, we find in the tables of 1840 no basis of comparison in regard to the raising of asses and mules. By the last return it is shown that the number of these animals in the Union is 559,070, of which all but 30,000 are found in the Southern States. For various employments, the mule is far better adapted to that region than the horse. Extreme and long-continued heat does not enfeeble him, and the expense of his subsistence and general care is much less, in comparison with the service he is able to perform. In some Northern States a considerable number formerly were reared for export, and a brisk trade was kept up with the West Indies in this kind of stock. What are now exported from the points which formerly monopolized this branch of traffic are brought from the South. Tennessee is the leading state in the production of mules, the number in that state, in 1850, having been 75,303; Kentucky was next, having 65,609. In New-Mexico the number of mules was 8,654, greater by nearly four-fifths than the horses returned for that territory. Much attention has been given to the improvement of mules in some of our Southern States, and those sent from Kentucky, Tennessee and Missouri, to be employed in army transportation in Mexico, were often not inferior in height to the horses of that country, and were at all times superior to them in strength, endurance and usefulness.

Milch Cows.—Under the general term of neat cattle were embraced, in the Sixth Census, the three descriptions of animals designated in that of 1850 as milch cows, working oxen and other cattle. The aggregate of the three classes in 1840 was 14,971,586; in 1850, 18,355,287. The increase, therefore, between the two periods, was 3,383,701, or about twenty per cent. They appear to be distributed quite equally over the Union. The amount of butter gives an average of something over 49 pounds to each milch cow. The average production of cheese to each cow is 16⅔ pounds. As with horses, the same allowance must be made on account of the omission of cows, except in connection with agriculture. The only schedule in which the live stock of the country could be enumerated, were those used for obtaining the agricultural products of farms. From this fact the schedules for population and manufactures being alone used in cities, their live stock was not included in them.

Butter and Cheese.—The census of 1840 furnishes us no statistics from which we can accurately determine the quantity of butter and cheese then produced. The value of both is given under the heading of value of the products of the dairy, at the sum of $33,787,000. It is presumed that the marshals made their returns in accordance with the prices governing in their respective districts, which would differ so widely as to render any assumed average as mere conjecture. New-York is far in advance of any other state in the productiveness of its dairies. They yield one-fourth of all the butter, and nearly one-half the cheese produced in the Union. Pennsylvania, which makes 40,000,000 lbs. of butter, is less prolific in cheese than many smaller states. In this latter article, Ohio is before all other competitors, except New-York.

The following table shows the amount of dairy products exported from the United States for several years past.—

	Butter, lbs.	Cheese, lbs.	Value.
1820—21	1,069,024	766,431	$190,287
1830—31	1.728.212	1,131.817	264,796
1840—41	3,785,993	1,748,471	504,815
1841—42	2,055,133	2.456,607	385,185
1842—43	3,408,247	3,440.144	508,968
1843—44	3,251,952	7,343,145	758,829
1844—45	3,587,489	7,941,187	878,865
1845—46	3,436,660	8,675,390	1,063,087
1846—47	4,214,433	15,673.600	1,741,770
1877—48	2,751.086	12,913,305	1,361,668
1848—49	3.406,242	17,433,682	1,654,157
1849—50	3,876,175	13,020,817	1,215,436
1850—51	3,994,542	10,361,189	1,124,652

Sheep.—There was, between 1840 and 1850, an increase of 2,309,108 in the number of sheep in the United States. It will be useful to observe with some closeness the progress of sheep breeding in different parts of the country. We perceive that in New England there has occurred a remarkable decrease in their number. There were in that division of the Union, in 1840, 3,811,307; in 1850, the number had declined to 2,164,452, being a decrease of 1,646,855, or 45 per cent.

In the five Atlantic Middle States—New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware and Maryland—there was a

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decrease from 7,402,851 to 5,641,391, equal to 1,761,460, or about 22½ per cent. In Pennsylvania there was a gain, however, during this period, of 155,000 sheep.

We see that while there has been a positive diminution of 3,408,000 in the states above named, there has been an augmentation of 5,717,608 in those south of Maryland and west of New-York. Ohio has gained most largely, having been returned as pasturing, in 1840, 2,028,401; and in 1850, 3,942,929: an increase of 1,914,528, or nearly 100 per cent.

In each of the states south and west of the lines indicated, there has been a very large proportional increase in this kind of stock, and there is reasonable ground for the opinion that the hilly lands of Virginia, North and South Carolina, Tennessee, and the prairies of Illinois, Iowa, and Texas, will prove highly favorable for the rearing of sheep for their wool and pelts.

New-Mexico has the extraordinary number of 377,271 sheep, more than six to each inhabitant, proving the soil and climate of that territory to be well adapted to this description of stock, and giving promise of a large addition from that quarter to the supply of wool. The importance of fostering this great branch of national production, is shown by the fact, as assumed by an intelligent writer on the subject, that our population annually consumes an amount of wool equal to 7 pounds for each person.

If this estimate be even an approximation to correctness, we are yet very far short of producing a quantity adequate to the wants of the country; and it is equally clear that we possess an amount of unemployed land adapted to grazing sufficient to support flocks numerous enough to clothe the people of the world.

Value of Live Stock.—The very large amount representing the value of live stock in the United States cannot be considered extravagant in view of the immense number of animals returned. It is an item of agricultural capital which affords a good indication of the wealth and prosperity of the country.

Wool.—Analogous to the uses for which it serves to cotton, wool is a product of only less importance to the prosperity of the country than that leading staple of our agriculture and commerce.

It is a very gratifying fact that, though the number of sheep has increased, in ten years, but twelve per cent, the aggregate weight of their fleeces has augmented forty-six per cent.

In 1840, there were 19,311,374 sheep, yielding 35,802,114 pounds of wool, equal to 1 84-100 pounds per head.

In 1850, the average weight of each fleece was 2 43-100 pounds, from which it would appear that such an improvement had taken place in the various breeds of the American sheep as to increase their average product about thirty-two per cent throughout the United States. And a critical analysis of the returns of sheep and wool proves not only that our breeds are capable of such improvement, but that it has actually taken place.

In Vermont the greatest attention has been given to sheep breeding; time, money and intelligence have been freely applied to the great object of obtaining a breed combining weight and fineness of fleece. These efforts have succeeded so well, that although the number of sheep in that state had declined nearly half in the period from the sixth to the seventh census, the yield of wool remained nearly the same. The average weight of the fleece in this state, in 1840, was 2 1-5 pounds, and in 1850 it had increased to 3 71-100 pounds; the gain being equal to almost 70 per cent.

In Massachusetts also, where strenuous exertions have been made, though not on so large a scale as in Vermont, to improve their sheep, a correspondingly beneficial result has been obtained, and the average weight of the fleece has been increased from 2½ to 3 1-10 pounds.

The State of New-York produced 226,000 pounds more wool, in 1850, from 3,453,000 sheep, than from 5,118,000 in 1840, showing that the weight of the fleece had been raised from less than two to nearly three pounds.

Our imports of wool during the past ten years have varied as follows:—

Years.	Quantity in Pounds.	Value.
1841	15,006,410	$1,091,953
1842	11,420,958	797,482
1843 (nine months)	3.517,100	245.000
1844	14,008,000	851,460
1845	23,833,040	1,689,794
1846	16,558,247	1,134,226
1847	8,460,109	555,622
1848	11,341,429	857,034
1849	17,869.022	1,177,347
1850	18,669,794	1,168,691

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By this statement it is shown that the quantity of wool brought into the country, of late years, amounts to almost one-third part of that produced in it, while at former periods, as from 1841 and 1845, the quantity was nearly one-half. The largest proportion of this imported wool was chiefly from Buenos Ayres and the neighboring states on the Rio de la Plata, and is of a coarse and cheap variety, costing from six to eight cents per pound. It will be always cheaper to bring this kind of wool from regions where sheep are reared without care or labor than to produce it at home; but there is no country in the world in which sheep may, by judicious treatment, be made a source of greater wealth and comfort to its inhabitants than the United States.

The importations of wool in 1849 and 1850 exhibit a remarkable increase over the preceding or any former year, amounting in quantity to 32,548,693 pounds, and to the value of $3,800,000.

ART. V.—DECISIONS OF THE SUPREME COURT OF LOUISIANA.

REPORTS OF CASES ARGUED AND DETERMINED IN THE SUPREME COURT OF LOUISIANA. BY HON. F. Z. MARTIN—TWENTY VOLUMES COMPRISED IN TEN, WITHOUT ABBREVIATION, WITH NOTES OF DECISIONS UP TO SEVENTH ANNUAL REPORTS, AND REFERENCES TO THE AMENDMENTS OF THE CONSTITUTION AND CODES. BY THOS. GIBBES MORGAN. NEW-ORLEANS: J. B. STEEL.

[It is not our purpose to review this great work, but simply to refer to some of the traits of Judge Martin's legal character, and to the circumstances under which the reports were first prepared, as we find them in the memoir of Judge Bullard, drawn up several years ago. We make a few extracts.]

"Seven years before the period of which I am speaking, (1809,) Louisiana was a Spanish province; governed by a system of laws written in a language understood by only a small part of the population, and which had been forced upon the people at the point of the bayonet by O'Reilly, and which superseded the ancient French laws by which the province had been previously governed. Upon the change of government the writ of habeas corpus, that great bulwark of personal liberty, had been introduced, together with the system of proceedings in criminal cases, and the trial by jury, according to the principles of the common law. In 1808 was promulgated the digest of the civil laws, then in force in Louisiana, commonly called the old code. That compilation was little more than a mutilated copy of the Code Napoleon. But instead of abrogating all previous laws and creating an entire system, as had been done in France by the Code Napoleon, superseding the discordant customs, ordinances and laws in the different departments, our code was considered as a declaratory law, repealing such only as were repugnant to it, and leaving partially in force the voluminous codes of Spain. The Superior Court had already been organized for some years, and was composed of three judges, any one of whom formed a *quorum;* and as the several judges then sat separately in the different districts, each could pronounce a judgment in the last resort. There was no means of establishing uniformity of decision: no publicity had been given to the decisions, and the public was without any guarantee for their uniformity. The law was wholly unsettled and in a state of chaos. The Court of Cassation in France had begun, it is true, to fix the interpretation of their code, but the rules applicable to ours were obviously different in many respects, in consequence of the manifest difference in their creating and repealing clauses. It became necessary to study and compare the French and Spanish codes; and although the Roman law never had *proprio vigore* any binding force here, yet in doubtful cases, or in cases in which the positive law was silent, it might well be consulted as the best revelation of the principles of eternal justice, and, as it were, an anticipated commentary upon the code.

"Judge Martin felt at once the difficulty of the task before him, and he determined to commence without delay the publication of reports of cases decided by the Superior Court. He was induced to un-

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dertake that labor for the double purpose of giving publicity to the decisions of the court, in the nature of a *compte rendu* to the people, and thus guarding against misrepresentations or misapprehensions, and to ensure to a certain extent uniformity of decision. The first volume appeared in the spring of 1811, and a second in 1813, bringing down the decisions of the court from 1809 to the establishment of the state government.

"At that period a Supreme Court was created, having appellate jurisdiction only. That court was at first composed of Judges Hall, Mathews and Derbigny, and Judge Martin was appointed the first attorney-general of the state, on the 19th of February, 1813. He was an able criminal lawyer, and although it has been said he was not eloquent, yet he is admitted to have discharged the duties of that office with zeal and ability. After the resignation of Hall, he was appointed a judge of the Supreme Court on the first of February, 1815. From that period he continued in office until the 18th of March, 1846—a period of more than thirty-one years. He entered on his eighty-fifth year on the very day he was superseded by the appointments under the new constitution.

"The time at which Judge Martin was appointed to the Supreme Court will ever form a memorable epoch in the history of Louisiana. A powerful invading army menaced the capital: the citizens were in arms: martial law had been proclaimed by the general in command; and by an act of the legislature, passed on the 18th of December previous, all judicial proceedings in civil cases were suspended until the first of May: no business was transacted at the January and February terms of the court. In the mean time the enemy had been repulsed and peace restored. Official information, however, had not yet reached here of the treaty of Ghent, and when the court met early in March martial law was still in force.

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"He continued to publish his reports of the decisions of the Supreme Court until 1830, and, including the two small volumes containing the decisions of the Superior Court, already mentioned, he produced twenty volumes, embracing the entire period from 1809 to 1830. During nearly all that time from 1810 he was one of the judges, and performed his full share of the labor of the court. The opinions prepared by him exhibit evidence of deep learning and extensive research, while at the same time he superintended himself the printing and publication of his reports.

* * * * * *

"Not only was Judge Martin aided in moulding into form and symmetry our system of jurisprudence, by the quick perception of what is just, and the instinctive sense of equity of Mathews, and the more ardent industry and extensive research and erudition of Porter, and previously by the unpretending but extensive learning of Derbigny—but the period between the organization of the territorial government and the repeal of the Spanish law, was the classical age of the bar of Louisiana. The court was assisted in its researches and enlightened in its path by the various learning and elegant scholarship, and profound knowledge of different systems of jurisprudence, of Livingston and Brown, Workman and Moreau Lisbet, and Duncan, and numerous others. It does not become me to speak of the survivors of that distinguished corps. They form the living and brilliant link which connects that generation of lawyers with the present. It was then the sources of the Roman, Spanish and French laws were extensively explored, and a taste for *comparative jurisprudence* was created for the first time in the United States. The principles of the common, the customary and the Roman laws were invoked together and placed in juxtaposition.—The illustrious writers on jurisprudence of the 16th century in France, Spain, Italy and Germany, were consulted and compared. The most antiquated of the Gothic codes were studied, not as monuments of literary curiosity, but as fragments of pre-existing systems of human laws, originating either with the Romans or their barbarian conquerors. The whole of these various and often discordant materials were fused into one mass, and the court left to select such principles as appeared most consonant with the general scope and enactments of the codes. Whoever has read the first twenty-five volumes of our reports, cannot fail to have observed what vast stores of legal erudition were brought to light in the discussion of leading cases, and how much the range has been narrowed since our jurisprudence ha-

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become better settled under the more full and explicit text of the new code.

"It is thus we have witnessed the formation, even its process of crystallization, as it were, of the existing jurisprudence of Louisiana. Its ingredients are derived from various sources, and after being filtered through numerous codes, meet in one harmonious mass. The protection of wives, incautiously engaged for the contracts of their husbands, rests upon a Roman senatus consultum—their ultimate rights in the property acquired during the marriage, upon the customs of the erratic tribes that overrun Gaul, and were carried by the Visigoths across the Pyrenees. The wisdom of Alphonso is found infused into many of the institutions, which owe their origin to Alfred the Great. The common law has paid back a part of what it had borrowed from the Roman jurisprudence. The commercial law, standing out almost independently of the code, rests in a great measure upon the usages of commercial states, but more especially of the United States and Great Britain, but slightly modified by positive local legislation. The whole body of our law thus forms a system, most admired by those who understand it best, and who can trace back its principles to the sources from which they originally flowed. Of the springheads of our law it may be said, as it has been of the waters of Castalia:

'There shallow drafts intoxicate the brain,
But drinking deeply sobers us again."'

ART. VI.—WISCONSIN AND THE GROWTH OF THE NORTH-WEST.

[In our January Number appeared a paper upon Wisconsin, which we are now enabled to complete, in every particular, from a pamphlet prepared by J. H. Lathrop, Chancellor of the University of that state. The information will be entirely new to our readers in the South-west.]

At the opening of the 19th century, the "Territory North-west of the Ohio" was an unbroken wilderness, shared in doubtful supremacy by the aboriginal man and the other denizens of the forest and prairie.

It were needless to except from the universality of this description the occasional advent of the Indian trader, the nascent settlements on the Ohio, which were attempting a precarious existence, or the military posts which were pushed into this outer domain of our Republic, in token of our political dominion, and as heralds of an advancing civilization.

In 1802, the State of Ohio was carved out of the body of the North-west and admitted into the federal Union. Steadily advancing in population, wealth and respectability, to its present enviable position in our political system, her brief but impressive history commands the admiration of older communities, and awakens the generous emulation of the new. Her population, in 1850, had reached nearly 2,000,000 souls, and she ranks the third in the sisterhood of states.

The history of Ohio has been the history in succession of Indiana, Illinois and Michigan. Their advance has been, in like manner, rapid in population and in the other elements of political greatness. The four states above enumerated contained, in 1850, 4,000,000 of freemen.

Surprising as these results are, transcending all that the world had previously known of the creation of new political communities by the peaceful migration of men and of the arts, distancing even all previous experience in the settlement of the new world, it might seem enough for Wisconsin, the youngest of the creations of the Ordinance of '87, to say, that she is of the North-west, and shares with her kindred states in the experience of a like early development.

But to say this, is not enough. The settlement of Wisconsin has thus far been on a scale unapproached even by that of the four states above enumerated, and constituting with her, the area long familiarly known as the "Territory North-west of the Ohio."

That this is not a vain boast, is a fact too broadly and familiarly known, to need the formality of demonstration. For the satisfaction of the curious, however, there is appended hereto a tabular view of the population of the five states of the North-west, for decades of years, constructed by collating the census re-

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turns from 1800 down to 1850. From this table it appears, that during the decade 1840—'50, the population of Wisconsin advanced from 30,000 to 305,000, while, at corresponding decades of their growth, Ohio presents the figures from 45,000 to 230,000, Michigan from 31,000 to 212,000, while the corresponding increase of Indiana and Illinois was in a much smaller ratio.

It will be observed, that the increase of Wisconsin, for the ten years ending in 1850, was 900 per cent. By examination of the census returns of that year, it will be found that the increase of Iowa was 345 per cent.; that of Arkansas, 114 per cent., and of no other state over 100 per cent. during the same period.

This migration to Wisconsin, unparalleled as it is in the experience of states, has not been the fitful result of the gambling mania which is luring its hordes of victims to the land of gold. It has been the steady and persistent flow of men and capital, seeking a permanent home and a profitable investment. After filling up the southern tier of counties, the unbroken tide is setting strongly to the fertile valleys of the Fox and Wisconsin rivers, with their tributaries, and to the Mississippi border.

Wisconsin is no less distinguished in the *character* of its early settlers than in their number. Recklessness and wild adventure have found little place in the history of this migration.

Michigan was fairly open to survey and settlement as early as 1830, and in the course of the succeeding ten years its capabilities were explored and appreciated, during which period its population rose, by a massive emigration, from 31,000 to 212,000.

In 1840 the relations of Wisconsin to the intelligent enterprise of the eastern states were what those of Michigan were ten years earlier. The straits had been passed by sails and by steam, and the Territory of Wisconsin was open to settlement.

The conviction, however, had fastened itself on the mind of New-England and New-York, that the physical elements of prosperity were more decided and more readily available in Wisconsin, and would work out an earlier maturity, economical and social, than had been realized in the history of other states.

In accordance with these impressions, it is confessedly true that the basis of the social character of Wisconsin has been laid in a migration as distinguished in character as it has been surpassing in numbers. The intellect, the education and integrity—the head and the heart,—as well as the enterprise, the wealth, the industry and the skill of New-York and New-England, have been laid broadly and deeply under requisition to furnish out the staple of the population which is to leave its impress on the state for generations to come.

Wisconsin has been equally fortunate in the numbers and the material of her foreign emigration.

The great European movement which is likely to characterize the latter half of the 19th century, will consist, not so much in the improvement of the forms of social organization at home, as in the reproduction of her civilization under greatly improved conditions, by a massive emigration to the new world, whose broad surface of land, still unoccupied, is demanding settlement and cultivation, with a voice now familiar to the ear, and attuned to the heart of Europe.

There is a Germany in America which is destined to be greater than the German's fatherland. Ireland is already cis-atlantic and regenerate. The Scandinavian, with his remarkable power of assimilation, touches our shores, and is American in thought, feeling and language.

From all these sources, Wisconsin is deriving large and steady accessions of numbers and of wealth, of enterprise and of cultivated intellect; not of those who drop down by accident within our borders, but of those who leave their native shores with no other intention than to find a home in Wisconsin.

Through those several channels of increase and progress, Wisconsin presented in the year 1850—the *third* of her existence as a sovereign state and a member of the national union—a population of 305,000 souls, a result absolutely without parallel in the settlement of states.

And it is equally true that the opening of her career as a sovereign state has been from a point of nearer approximation to the standard of social maturity which prevails on the Atlantic border, and with far less sacrifice of the advantages and refinements of modern civilization, than has been true of other new states, whether of the North-west,

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or of other portions of the great valley. It is, therefore, an interesting question, and one which has attracted attention, public and private, what are the natural capabilities of Wisconsin, which have made so broad and permanent an impression upon the mass of mind at home and abroad, as to bring to her shores so large a portion of the men and the capital that are annually seeking a home and investment in the West?

The answer to this inquiry naturally arranges itself under a variety of heads, which will be very briefly considered.

GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION.—The State of Wisconsin comprises most of that part of the original North-western territory which lies north of the parallel of latitude 42° 30′ and between Lake Michigan and the Mississippi River, and extending to Lake Superior on the north. A portion of this expanse of territory, lying between Green Bay and Lake Superior and to the north and east of Menomonee and Montreal rivers, is attached to Michigan; and another portion, west and north of the St. Croix and St. Louis rivers, to Minnesota.

The area of Wisconsin, exclusive of the waters of Lake Michigan and Superior, comprises fifty-four thousand square miles, or thirty-five millions of acres.

CLIMATE.—Included between parallels 42° 30′, and 48° north, the climate of Wisconsin is of the same general character with that of New-York and New-England. The average annual temperature, however, of Wisconsin, is not of so low a figure as that of the same parallels on the Atlantic border. The atmosphere is drier, more transparent and salubrious, and the whole area of the state is remarkably free from those causes of endemic disease which were by no means unknown in the settlement of western New-York, which have been the misfortune of large portions of Michigan, and the scourge of Indiana, Illinois, Missouri and, in part, of Iowa. Wisconsin is conceded to be the healthiest of the western states. Its summers are adapted, in temperature and duration, to perfect all the products natural to the latitude, but are not oppressive. Its autumns are proverbially delightful. Its winters are close and uniform, but not harsh or generally severe.

GEOLOGICAL FEATURES, SOIL, &c.—The limestone, underlying the coal fields of Illinois, forms the immediate basis of the alluvion of Southern Wisconsin. This geological district, in addition to that portion of the state which lies southerly of the valley of the Wisconsin River, comprises the whole of the slope towards Lake Michigan.

In many portions of this district the limerock disappears, and the out-cropping sandstone furnishes a fine material for building.

The lead-bearing rock of the mineral region is a porous limestone, prevailing throughout Grant, La Fayette and Iowa counties, comprising four-fifths of the "Lead District" of the Upper Mississippi; the remaining one-fifth being in the states of Illinois and Iowa.

Deposits of iron ore, water limestone, and beds of gypsum, together with other varieties of minerals, are found in localities more or less numerous throughout the limestone region.

All of that section of the state which lies between Lake Superior on the North, and the Falls of St. Anthony on the Mississippi, and the falls of the other rivers flowing southerly, is primitive in its prevailing geological character; and it is within this primitive region that the copper mines of Lake Superior are found —probably the richest in the world, and apparently inexhaustible.

In all that portion of the state lying between the primitive region just described, and the limestone formation of the South and East, the transition sandstone prevails, interspersed with limestone, and, more sparsely, with rock of a primitive character. This formation comprises that section of country drained by the Wisconsin and other rivers tributary to the upper Mississippi, and below the falls of those streams. Within this geological district are found quarries of white marble, which promise to be abundant and valuable.

The character of the soil of Wisconsin is, of course, indicated to some extent by its geological features. The limestone district of the state is overspread by a soil and subsoil similar to that which prevails in other portions of the great valley, and unsurpassed by any in fertility. It is the distinction of the mineral region of Wisconsin, that it is overspread by a surface of the very finest agricultural qualities, contrary to the general fact, that a mining district is worthless for the purposes of culture.

Proceeding northerly and westward-

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ly of the dividing ridge between the waters of Lake Michigan and those that flow into the Upper Mississippi, the soil will be observed to become more sandy and porous; a character which will be found to prevail throughout the sandstone region above described. This portion of the state admits of easy cultivation. The soil is warm and highly productive, and the growth luxuriant.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SCENERY, &c. —The surface of Lake Michigan is about six hundred feet above the level of the ocean. The surface of the state is every where undulating; not hilly, much less mountainous. Its average level below latitude 46° is about 250 feet above Lake Michigan; seldom falling so low as 100 feet, and rarely rising above 400 feet. The highest of the Blue Mounds, on the line between the counties of Dane and Iowa, rises 1,170 feet above Lake Michigan, and is perhaps the most elevated land in Wisconsin.

There is a remarkable depression in the surface of the country, running across the state, from Green Bay to the Mississippi, the bottom of which furnishes the channels of the Fox and the Lower Wisconsin. The portage between these two rivers is less than two miles.

This portage is but 223 feet above the level of Lake Michigan; being the elevation of the dividing ridge at this point, between the basin of the lakes and the valley of the Mississippi. At the mouth of the Wisconsin, the western terminus of this depression is about 60 feet above Lake Michigan; that of Lake Winnebago, at the head of the rapids of the Fox, being 160 feet.

From the north into this valley flow the Upper Wisconsin and the Wolf, and on the south the country rises to the level of the head waters of the Rock, 316 feet above the surface of Lake Michigan. Thence there is a gradual inclination of the surface southerly to the line of the state; the elevation of which at the egress of the Rock is 128 feet above the lake.

It is characteristic of the state, that the streams uniformly flow in beds but very slightly depressed below the general level of the adjacent country, and present no difficulty in the way of construction of roads of easy grade, transversely, as well as in the line of watercourses. There is also, from this cause, much less to be apprehended from the sudden and destructive swell of the volume of water, from copious rains—two considerations, which they know best how to appreciate, who have dwelt where rivers and their branches make their beds in deep valleys, while the general elevation of the country is but a succession of intervening ridges.

Such being a general description of the surface of Wisconsin, the immigrant will not look for Alpine scenery, or the bolder and sublimer features of the country of high mountain and deep valley. But in all that constitutes the beauty of the landscape, whether in the vestments of nature, or in those capabilities which cultivation can alone develop, Wisconsin is without a rival.—Among her ten thousand undulations, there is scarcely one which lifts its crown above its fellows, which does not disclose to the prophetic eye of taste a possible Eden, a vision of loveliness, which time and the hand of cultivation will not fail to realize and to verify.

The only forests, of a growth approximating towards that of Western New-York, Pennsylvania and Northern Ohio, are found in a small portion of the Rock River valley, and in a narrow border on Lake Michigan, widening as it is traced northerly; evergreens becoming more freely interspersed, and finally predominating.

The evergreen growth prevails in the valleys of the streams of the sandstone district. The most extensive pinery in the state is found on the upper Wisconsin. The same valuable growth prevails in the valleys of the Wolf, the La Crosse, the Black, the Chippewa, the St. Croix, and other streams penetrating the sandstone region.

Aside from these localities and the primitive region of Lake Superior, the elements of the Wisconsin landscape are the rolling prairie, the sparse woodland, the opening, the natural meadow, and the lake. These, in their infinite variety of combination, and in their unrivaled loveliness, make up the natural scenery of the state. Three hundred and fifty thousand souls have, in a day, as it were, found a happy home in Wisconsin. But her millions of acres, equal-

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ly beautiful, and all untouched, are still courting the hand of cultivation and the adornings of art.

EDUCATION.—The bounty of Congress has set apart the 16th section of every township in the state for the support and maintenance of common schools. From this source, nearly 1,000,000 acres will accrue to the state, the proceeds of the sales of which are to constitute a permanent fund, the income of which is to be annually devoted to the great purposes of the grant.

This magnificent foundation has been wisely enlarged by constitutional provisions, giving the same direction to the donation of 500,000 acres, under the act of 1841, and the five per cent. reserved on all sales of government lands within the state. A still larger addition will accrue from the grant of the swamp and overflowed lands, which the settlement of the country, the lapse of time, and easy processes of reclamation, will convert into the best meadow land in the world, and a large portion, ultimately, into arable.

For the support of a state university, seventy-two sections of choice land, comprising 46,080 acres, have been already granted, and it is not improbable that this provision may be also enlarged by subsequent grants. If these trusts are administered with ordinary wisdom, the educational funds of Wisconsin cannot be less, ultimately, than $3,000,000, and may reach $5,000,000.

The university is already chartered and in successful operation. The school system has been wisely designed, and the progress of organization, under the law, keeps pace with the progress of settlement. There are already not far from two thousand five hundred school districts in the state. The annual income to be divided, has already reached $70,000, and will be greatly increased from year to year.

The system contemplates, by the introduction of union schools, to extend academic instruction to each town in the state.

In addition to this munificent public provision for common and liberal education, there are, in different parts of the state, educational incorporations, both academic and collegiate, founded on private subscription. The most promising of these are the college at Beloit, well endowed, and in successful operation: and similar institutions at Milwaukie, Racine and Waukesha, in Eastern Wisconsin, and at Appleton, in the North.

Indeed, in none of the new states, even in the North-west, will the means of education be more ample; and in none is there a more rational appreciation of the importance of this paramount public interest.

In Wisconsin, as in the other states of this Union, there is, and ever will be, an entire freedom of ecclesiastical organization, and an equal protection of every religious institution and arrangement, conservative of good morals, and protective of the highest and most enduring interests of man.

In consideration of all these elements of prosperity, economical and social, such as have never, till now, gathered around the opening career of a new political community, there is little ground for wonder that the early growth of Wisconsin has been without a parallel in the history of states; and it may be very safely assumed, that the advent of men and capital to that favored portion of the North-west, will continue, in increasing volume, for many years to come.

MINING.—To the practical miner, as capitalist or operative, *the lead region of the Upper Mississippi offers the most substantial inducements to settlement.* The exceeding abundance and richness of the mineral; the comparative ease with which it may be mined; and the high price it commands the moment it is brought to the surface, open to the industrious and prudent operator a highway to wealth.

New *leads* of the richest promise have been recently discovered in the mineral district, and an increasing emigration to that section of the state promises to replace the California draft, and to meet the growing demand for the mineral.

The steady advance in the price of lead which has prevailed for five years past, is indicative of a gradual but decided extension of its uses in the arts.—There is no ground for apprehension that the supply will outrun the demand, or be able to work a reduction of the wages of labor and profits of capital in this industrial occupation, for some years to come.

The copper mines of Lake Superior are of established celebrity throughout

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the world, and open an inviting field for enterprise. The mining interest in that region is fast losing its character of adventure, and is attracting the attention of the prudent capitalist and the practical miner, as a remunerative branch of business.

The iron mines of Wisconsin have not yet been opened to any extent, but are worthy of the attention of the immigrant. There are rich localities of ore near the head waters of the Rock, and on the Upper Mississippi and its branches.

LUMBERING.—To the lumberman, the pineries of Wisconsin present inducements for investment and settlement which can be hardly overrated. That of the Upper Wisconsin and its tributaries is the most extensive, and distinguished still more for the fine quality, than the inexhaustible quantities of its timber. The other localities of the white pine and other evergreens are mainly on the Wolf, the great northern affluent of the Fox, and on the La Crosse, the Black and the St. Croix, branches of the Upper Mississippi.

The rapids of these streams furnish abundant water-power for the manufacture of lumber; and on the annual spring rise, and occasional freshets at other seasons of the year, the yield of the mills is floated from the Wolf into Lake Winnebago and the Lower Fox, and from the other streams into the Mississippi.

Scarcely ten years have elapsed, since the Alleghany pine of Western New-York and Pennsylvania had undisputed possession of the market, not only of the Ohio valley but of the Mississippi and its tributaries, above New-Orleans; at which point it competed with the lumber of Maine and New-Brunswick.

The course of the lumber trade may now be considered as permanently changed. The pineries of Wisconsin now control, and will soon hold exclusive possession of the market of the valleys of the Mississippi and its great western afluents.

AGRICULTURE.—But it is to that great body of emigrants who are seeking a home in the West, as cultivators of the soil, that the natural capabilities of Wisconsin most of all address themselves.

The prairies of Wisconsin, unlike those of Illinois, Missouri, Iowa and Minnesota, are none of them extensive; and are so skirted and belted by timber, as to be adapted to immediate and profitable occupation and improvement to their very centre.

The openings, which comprise a large portion of the finest land of Wisconsin, owe their present condition to the action of the annual fires, which have kept under all other forest growth, except those varieties of oak which can withstand the sweep of that element.

This annual burning of an exuberant growth of grass and of underbrush, has been adding, perhaps for ages, to the productive power of the soil, and preparing it for the ploughshare, without the life-long process which was necessary to bring the densely timbered lands of Ohio to the same advanced point of preparation, for immediate and profitable cultivation.

It is the great fact, that nature has thus "cleared up" Wisconsin to the hand of the settler, and enriched it by yearly burnings, and has at the same time left sufficient timber on the ground for fence and firewood, that explains in a great measure the capacity it has exhibited, and is now exhibiting, for rapid settlement and early maturity.

There is another fact important to be noticed in this connection. The low level prairie, or natural meadow, of moderate extent, is so generally distributed over the face of the country, that the settler, on a fine section of arable land, finds on his own farm, or in his immediate neighborhood, abundant pasturage for his stock in summer, on the open range, and hay for the winter, for the cutting—the bounty of Nature supplying his need in this behalf, till the cultivated grasses may be introduced and become sufficient for his use.

It is this very rapid transition of a quarter-section of government land into an *old farm*, without a tithe of the privations and hardships which hung around the lifetime of the early pioneers of Ohio, which distinguishes the early settlement of Wisconsin.

Every description of husbandry suitable to the latitude, may be successfully prosecuted. In addition to the usual routine of crops, the business of stock-raising, of dairy, of wool-growing, and the culture of flax, are beginning to engage the attention of settlers, with promise of eminent success.

The steady and exclusive prosecution

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of agriculture on the fertile soil of the mineral district, has the advantage of an active home market and ready pay.—Hitherto, in consequence of the tempting and absorbing nature of the mining business, the cultivation of the soil has given place to "prospecting" for mineral. Agricultural lands, therefore, though of the very first order of fertility, have been neglected, and may be purchased at very low rates.

The same general remarks apply to the agricultural lands in the pineries.—Though of different elements from the soil which prevails in the limestone region, it is easily worked, and of undoubted productive power. The home market is still more importunate in its demands, and as promptly remunerative.

And of the millions of acres comprised in the area of Wisconsin, by far the greatest portion may still be entered at the land offices at $1.25 per acre, paid down in specie, or in land warrants.

Several hundred thousand acres of school lands, in the older counties, are now open to entry at their appraised value, at the office of the Secretary of State, at the capitol in Madison; one-tenth of the purchase money down, and the residue on a long credit at seven per cent. per annum.

Choice lands, located for the maintenance of the State University, may also be entered at their appraised value, at the office of the Secretary of State, on even better terms of payment than the school lands.

It is worth while to add, that the California emigration and other temporary causes have thrown in market, at reduced prices, many improved farms in choice locations in the older counties. The opportunity for investment thus offered, is worthy of the attention of the emigrant; and facts relative thereto may be easily ascertained on inquiry at private land offices in the larger towns in the state.

MANUFACTURES.—The artisan will find a fair field for his labor, and for the employment of capital in Wisconsin.

For the ordinary mechanic arts which are inseparable from agricultural thrift anywhere, the demand is importunate. Builders of every class and degree are liberally paid in the larger towns. Millwrights are sure to find employment in town or country, whether the mill-power be water or steam. Carriage making, from the manufacture of the rail-road car to the simple vehicle, whether useful or tasteful, is greatly in demand, and cannot fail to do well.

Among the larger operations of manufacture, those of flour and lumber are becoming sources of profit to the capitalist and laborer, and beneficial to the farmer. Woolen, flax and cotton mills must soon become fixed facts in Wisconsin. The raw material for the two former will soon be among the larger and more profitable home productions of her agriculture, while the supply of cotton will, through the channel of the Mississippi, be more direct, safe and easy, than by sea, to towns on the Atlantic border. For all these operations there is abundant water-power in suitable locations.

For the construction of steamboats and every variety of lake craft, the western coast of Lake Michigan is eminently adapted; and it may be reasonably anticipated that a large share of the ship and boat-building for these inland waters will be done in the ports on that shore. The iron and lumber of Northwestern Wisconsin will attract to that quarter much of the boat-building for the Mississippi and its branches.

Nor is it to be presumed that Wisconsin will be long tributary to Buffalo or Pittsburgh for its engines, whether for the steamer, the locomotive or the mill. No point on the lakes presents more advantages than Milwaukie for foundries, for castings and machinery of every description.

All these, and the thousand unenumerated arts which go to constitute the social maturity of a state, will be hospitably entertained, and meet an early development in Wisconsin.

TRADE.—Bordered on the east and the west, throughout its entire length, by Lake Michigan on the one hand, and by the Mississippi on the other, every portion of the state has easy access to the ocean, and a complete command of the eastern and southern markets—an advantage which will be appreciated by those who are acquainted with the mutations, as well as the fixed laws of trade.

On the Michigan side have sprung up the towns, Milwaukie, Racine, Kenosha, Ozaukee, Manitouwoc, Sheboygan and Green Bay, all flourishing and promising.

The growth of Milwaukie, like that of the state of which it is the commer-

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cial mart, has been unexampled in the history of American cities. Scarcely visited by the white man in 1835, it has now, (1852,) a population of twenty-five thousand souls.

On the Mississippi border, the elements of wealth, bountiful as nature has been, have scarcely begun to be developed; and the question is still open, as to the position of its principal commercial mart. The more prominent points at present are Potosi, Prairie du Chien, Prairie La Crosse, and Willow River.

Of the interior towns, there are in the lead district, Mineral Point and Platteville; in the basin of the Fox and Lower Wisconsin, Fort Winnebago, Oshkosh, Fond du Lac and Menasha. On the banks of the Rock, Watertown, Janesville and Beloit. Between the Rock and Lake Michigan, Whitewater and Waukesha.

Madison, the capital of the state, the seat of justice of Dane county, and the seat of the university, is beautifully located in the basin of the Four Lakes, midway between Lake Michigan and the Mississippi.

Janesville, the most populous of the interior towns, is the seat of the state institution for the education of the blind.

The population of the villages of the interior above enumerated, ranges from twelve hundred to four thousand each. The list of towns might be greatly enlarged, did it fall within the scope of this article to do more than to present to the emigrant a general view of the natural capabilities and the present aspects of Wisconsin.

All around is in rapid, though unequal progression, and the town unenumerated to-day, may take its place in the first class to-morrow.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.—Plank roads are in process of construction, connecting the leading towns of the interior with each other, and all with the Lake and the River. Most of the towns on Lake Michigan are penetrating the interior with these facilities of trade and intercourse, to the mutual advantage of themselves and the country.

Of the several rail-roads projected and chartered, most of which are destined to completion at an early day, two—the "Milwaukie and Mississippi," and the "Rock River Valley" roads, are already under progress.

Cars are already running over the track of the former, from Milwaukie to Eagle Prairie, nearly forty miles. It will be finished to Rock River this season, and to Wisconsin during the summer of 1853. Another year will carry it through to the Mississippi. The track is laid with heavy T rail, and the road, with all its appurtenances, will be a work of the first class. This road will pass through Madison, the capital of the state, and terminate at or near the mouth of the Wisconsin.

The Rock River Valley road, connecting Fond du Lac with Janesville, and to be ultimately extended to Chicago, has been commenced simultaneously at Fond du Lac and Janesville. Several miles have been graded, and are nearly ready for the rail.

A road has been chartered to run from Fort Winnebago, through Madison and Janesville, to Beloit; there to connect with a branch from the Chicago and Galena road; thus furnishing a continuous route from the valley of the Fox and Wisconsin, through the capital of the state to Chicago. This route is attracting the attention of capitalists; and the business of the country demands and will effect the early construction of the road, by means of which a continuous line of rail-road travel to the Atlantic will be secured to Central Wisconsin.

The lake-shore road, from Milwaukie, through Racine and Kenosha, to Chicago, is an enterprise of general interest, and the construction of it cannot be long deferred.

Other rail-roads, to intersect the state in various directions, either new routes or extensions of old ones, are projected. Some of these doubtless will be carried through, though the period of their completion is more distant than that of those above named.

The state is now in the administration of a large trust fund, derived from the sales of lands, granted by Congress, for the construction of a steamboat communication from Green Bay to the Mississippi, along the bed of the Fox and Wisconsin rivers. This great work when completed is destined to form an important and valuable water communication between the basin of the St. Lawrence and the great valley of the Mississippi. Once completed, heavy freight between St. Louis and New-York will inevitably seek this channel, in prefer-

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ence to that by the Illinois and Michigan canal, as now it seeks the latter in preference to the eastern routes.

This great work, furnishing the most capacious outlet from our MEDITERRANEAN RIVER, into our inland seas, and thence through the enlarged Erie canal and the Hudson, into the Atlantic, will be completed at no very distant day.

The improvement of the harbors on lake Michigan is imperiously demanded at the hands of the general government, and in the existing condition of the treasury cannot be longer delayed. And manifestly no object of expenditure could be more eminently national than the improvement of the outlet of Lake Superior, affording to the ordinary lake navigation free access to the copper region of northern Michigan and Wisconsin.

In connection with the subject of works of general utility, it remains only to say, that the telegraphic wires made early entry into Wisconsin. The line from Chicago to Milwaukie, and thence to Madison and Galena, has been for some years in operation. A network of wires now overspreads the state, and all the larger towns are brought into the circuit of instantaneous communication, and into enjoyment of the advantages of this commerce of thought and feeling.

It need hardly be said, in conclusion, that these evidences of social advancement which meet the immigrant on his arrival in Wisconsin, and rapidly gather around the settler in his new home, contrast cheerfully and hopefully with the privation, the hardship, the toil and the danger which fifty years ago environed the pioneer in the forests of Ohio.

Indeed, looking at the fact that nature has prepared the soil of Wisconsin for the plow, and its herbage for the immediate sustentation of domestic animals, —contemplating the appliances of civilization, which art brings to the very doors of his cabin—he will not doubt—as in truth he need not—that twenty years will do for Wisconsin what fifty years have barely sufficed to do for Ohio; that in all that goes to constitute a healthy and refined civilization, Wisconsin is destined to a more rapid development and an earlier maturity than has heretofore marked the history of states under the most favorable conditions.

These views are not extravagant. They are conclusions fully warranted by the premises. The predictions of to-day will be sober history in 1872.

ART. VII.—THE LA PLATA AND THE PARANA—PARAQUAY.

[IT is understood that our Government have negotiated a treaty for the opening of the Paraguay, Parana, and Uruguay rivers. The opening of such a field to American commerce must constitute a new and marked era in our progress. In order to form a clear conception of the matter, we insert a paper, read by E. A. Hopkins, Esq., Consul to Paraguay, at a late meeting of the New-York Statistical Society, of which the Hon. Geo. Bancroft is President, and Henry Grinnell and Dr. Hawkes, Vice-Presidents.]

The vast territory, formerly known by the appellation of Paraguay, comprised all that portion of South America which was bounded on the north by the northern frontier of the provinces of Santa Cruz de la Sierra, and Charcas, in 16° south latitude; on the south by the Straits of Magellan; by Brazil on the east; and by Chili and Peru on the west. But the country now distinguished by that name, is entirely contained within the shores of the Paraguay and Paranà rivers, from an undefined boundary with Brazil, in about 17° south latitude, to their junction 27° south latitude. The maps of these regions are manifestly incorrect in comparison with those of the better-known portions of the world; still they are sufficient to give the student a correct geographical idea of the sources and channels of these noble rivers.

The Rio de la Plata is formed by the confluence of the Uruguay with the Paranà; and, from thence to the ocean, it is remarkable for its great breadth and shallow waters, and should properly be considered as an estuary of the sea.

The river Paranà rises in the western slope of the highlands near the seaboard, northwestwardly of Rio de Janeiro; and flowing westerly and southwesterly to its junction with the Paraguay, continues a southerly and south-

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easterly course to the ocean: in this course, through sixteen degrees of latitude and as many of longitude, its navigation is only interrupted in one place, at latitude 23° 40′. Here the river flows for thirty-six leagues through a narrow gorge, which it has burst through the chain of mountains running from the province of San Paulo in Brazil, westward, till they are lost before reaching the Cordilleras. Probably no living white man has ever seen these extraordinary rapids. They were described in 1808, by D. Felix d'Azara, from hearsay, because, owing to domestic dissensions, barbarism has greatly encroached upon the frontiers originally conquered from the aborigines by the Spaniards.

Immediately above these rapids the river is 12,600 feet wide; but this enormous width is suddenly reduced to a single channel of 180 feet wide, down which the whole mass of water is precipitated with tremendous fury. The water falls on an inclined plane of fifty degrees, forming an immediate descent of about fifty-eight feet, and the noise is heard for eighteen miles. Señor d'Azara is of the opinion, that next to Niagara this is the most remarkable cataract in the world, from its extent and the amount of its waters.

Both below and above this cataract numerous tributaries, many of them larger than the largest rivers of Europe, send their waters to swell its gigantic flood. But the largest and most important of them all is the river Paraguay, which empties into the Paraná at 27° 20′ south latitude. This river is undoubtedly the most perfect, for the purposes of navigation, of any in the known world; and its position in reference to different countries is of the utmost importance. Its first sources are in 13° south latitude and 12° longitude west from Rio de Janeiro. From thence it increases rapidly and majestically. In fact, its primitive fountains are so plentiful both in number and in water, that in a very short distance from them it is already fully navigable. Its bed, spotted with gold and brilliants, indicates that it is to be the great channel of the immense riches of South America.

On the east lies the rich Brazilian province of Matto Grosso, whose capital, Cuyabá, contains 30,000 inhabitants, and is situated in latitude 15° 36′, upon the banks of the San Lorenço, a navigable tributary of the Paraguay. The city is surrounded by agricultural establishments, well stocked with cattle of enormous size, and by mines of gold and diamonds. The population of this province is estimated at 150,000 souls.

On the west, descending, we meet with the three most populous provinces of Bolivia, Mojos, Santa Cruz de la Sierra, and Chiquitos, from whence the celebrated Peruvian bark is chiefly procured. From thence, it is at present carried on mules westward, over the Andes, and exported from Cobija, the only seaport possessed by Bolivia, and finally finds its way to our shores, by doubling Cape Horn.

Floating farther down, we meet with the river Jauru, which is navigable up as far as the heart of the province of Chiquitos; and still farther down, in latitude 23°, the river Verde. From thence, on the western bank, down to the city of Santa Fé, on the Paraná, all is a primitive wilderness, inhabited by the aboriginal savages. But we meet, in this part of our course, two magnificent rivers, which are of the utmost importance. They are the Pilcomayo and the Bermejo, both navigable; and the valleys of both are thickly populated by the descendants of the white man, the lands along their banks being of unsurpassed value in production. The Pilcomayo rises on the eastern slope of the Andes, near the silver mines of Potosi, in Bolivia; and flowing southeastwardly, near Chuquisaca, the capital of Bolivia, enters into the Paraguay three leagues south of the city of Asunçion, the capital of Paraguay. The Bermejo takes its rise also from the eastern slope of the Andes, and, flowing through the populous provinces of Salta, Jujui, Catamarca, and San Juan, also empties into the Paraguay, in 27° S. lat., opposite the commercial port of Villa del Pilar, and near the embouchure of the Paraná. The voyages of discovery on the Pilcomayo and Bermejo, accomplished by the Señores Cornejo, Espinola, and Soria, demonstrate on every page the ecstatic enthusiasm of their authors at the richness and beauty of the country on their banks, and fully prove that the regions through which they flow are among the most beneficent gifts of Providence to man. In the year 1820, com-

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panies were formed for the purpose of introducing European emigration into those regions, and several useful industrial establishments were set in operation for the manufacture of a very superior indigo. But civil wars, upon which I shall touch by and by, destroyed all.

Descending the Paraguay from the river San Lorenço, on the eastward, we find constantly an uninterrupted line of white population. In Paraguay itself, the population amounts to 1,200,000 souls; and the country is intersected by many rivers, all more or less navigable; that is to say, from ten to fifty leagues. The river Tibicuari is the most important. It was fully explored in 1785, by D'Azara, as well as last year, by myself; and is navigable for steamboats of light draught for eighty leagues. Its banks are thickly populated throughout its whole extent. Descending still towards the ocean, we find the eastern shores of the Paranà lined with thirty-eight cities, towns, and villages; and in the provinces of Corrientes and Entre-Rios, a population of a hundred and fifty thousand souls. A rough calculation, according to the best authorities extant, would place the extent of river navigation within Cape St. Mary at not less than ten thousand miles, all of which, in a state of nature, is unobstructed by any impediment to steamboats. Upon the banks of these streams is found a population of 3,000,000, entirely dependent upon this navigation for their imports and exports.

Historical Sketch of Paraguay.—Yet it will be asked, "How is it that all this has just been found out?" or, rather, "Why have these unexampled advantages been hitherto closed from our energies?" The story is one of dark crime. Its cause is simple, when explained. Two extraordinary characters will be found to be the chief impediments: Rosas, the dictator of Buenos Aires, and Francia, the tyrant of Paraguay. Whilst at the same time our own government has heavy sins of omission to answer for, that of England remains misrepresented by a dilatory and inexplicable policy; and that of France suffers under grave imputations of an ill-timed generosity, biased and rendered fruitless by English competition and her own internal revolutions. All these causes have combined in producing the same result; an immunity on the part of barbarous tyrants to oppress and destroy, and, as a necessary consequence, an increasing debility and want of confidence in all commercial transactions in these countries.

The dismemberment of the provinces of La Plata took place at the close of the year 1813. It began with Paraguay; but, strictly speaking, she could at no time be said to have formed a portion of the "United Provinces," as created by the patriots. She never joined in any confederacy with them, but at once, in 1811, established on the ruins of the Spanish power an independent government of her own. This fact demands especial attention, as the basis of her subsequent history. The truth is, that Paraguay secured her independence from a colonial vassalage more by the advantages of isolated geographical position, than by any exertions on the part of her inhabitants. This same geographical position has also been one cause of the terrible tyranny to which she was subjected under the dictator Francia; and, although in that instance, it may have operated in favor of her worst internal enemy, yet it must always be a powerful safeguard against the risk of foreign domination.

Dr. Francia began his political career as secretary to the Revolutionary Junta, in 1811. In 1814, we find him terminating his consular career, and elected dictator for three years. But to secure this election, even by his own creatures, he was compelled, in imitation of other great usurpers in the history of the world, to order out his guards and surround the church where his congress met, by way of a gentle hint that he was to be obeyed. From this time he does not seem to have deemed a re-election necessary; but he fortified his position by a system of espionage, which he constantly extended and ramified, and by which he distracted and alarmed every family in Asunçion. He encouraged all the lower classes to look to him for favor and advancement, and sowed discord and jealousies among the better portion of the community, by every surreptitious means in his power.

From this time until his death, which took place on the 23d of September, 1840, he adopted, as his established principle, perfect non-intercourse with all the world; and his government became, with each day that his miserable life was prolonged, only the more despotic,

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and the more of a curse upon his country. Churches were robbed to pay the hirelings of his nefarious will; religious sanctuaries were desecrated; the priesthood were imprisoned; and, unmarried himself, he destroyed by forbidding the matrimonial tie. Immorality stalked abroad in the rays of the noonday sun.

The city of Asunçion became shrouded in gloom. The houses—with doors and windows always closed, business suspended, and no sound of domestic comfort or social hilarity to dispel the awful stillness caused by the darkness of despair—seemed only to contain the contemplated victims of the *Supremo*. Robertson says that, ten years before his death, "the prisons were groaning with their inmates; commerce was paralyzed; vessels were rotting on the river banks; produce going to decay in the warehouses; and the insolence of his soldiers was systematically encouraged, as the best means of striking terror into the hearts of the crouching and insulted citizens; distrust and fear pervaded every habitation; the nearest friends and relations were afraid of each other; despondency and despair were written upon every countenance you met; and the only laughter heard in the city was that of Francia's soldiers over their revels in the barracks, or their exultation over the affronts offered to unoffending citizens in the streets."

At length, as full of years as of crimes, he expired at the age of eighty-two—one of the few tyrants who have quietly died in their beds at a good old age, and in the plenitude of their power. He left his country impoverished of its precious metals; not a dollar in the treasury; and not a public or private paper of his administration unburned. For the reputation of the human family, Francia should be considered as insane during the latter years of his life; "for," as Mackintosh expresses it "the subtle and shifting transformations of wild passion into maniacal disease, the return of the maniac to the scarcely more healthy state of stupid anger, and the character to be given to acts done by him when near the varying frontier which separates lunacy from malignity, are matters which have defied all the experience and sagacity in the world."

After the death of Francia, a popular congress elected again two consuls to serve for two years; a general amnesty was declared; public and private confidence was restored; the people again gave utterance to their thoughts and feelings without fear or apprehension, and the stilled and stagnant nation-heart throbbed full and free, and sent forth shouts of joy in the happy security of freedom. The system of non-intercourse with the world was abandoned. A gradual distribution of the soldiery took place; and they soon lost the feverish impulses of their military character, in the peaceful occupations of the citizen.

The first duties of the consuls were to declare the nation free and open to foreigners and commerce, and to make such regulations with their neighbors of Brazil and Buenos-Ayres as would insure the recognition of the independence of their nation. This was imperatively necessary, to secure an egress to the ocean by way of the Paranà river, their natural and only commercial highway to the outer world. To this end they sent a commissioner to Buenos-Aires, in 1842. This gentleman was also charged with an application to our government, to recognize the independence of Paraguay, and proceed thereafter with such measures as would naturally follow. This was the first request of the kind ever made by the Paraguayan government to any independent power beyond the confines of South America; and I beg your especial attention to the fact, because it is my design to point out, by and by, the danger which the neglect of our government must incur, of driving this important and rising republic into the arms of England and France, if it is by long delay compelled to despair of our friendship and sympathy.

We have sufficiently shown how Dr. Francia shut up his own country, and also deprived the northern countries, Brazil and Bolivia, of all transit to the ocean. It should be recollected, moreover, that he established his power whilst the war for independence was still raging in the neighboring states; and also that Brazil may be said to have come into existence but yesterday, her declaration being made in 1823, subsequent to those of the Spanish-American countries.

But Francia having died in 1840, and the government and its principles having been then changed in Paraguay, we have now to consider the reason why she has still remained virtually in the

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same situation, for the last eleven years. For the explanation we must look to the dictator of Buenos-Aires, the successor to the policy and to the crimes of the dictator of Paraguay, in the person of General D. Juan Manual de Rosas.

The domestic struggle which has agitated the countries of the Rio de la Plata for the last twenty-five years, took its origin in that great and universal principle which has constantly agitated mankind since the first organization of society,—*the struggle between the progressive and conservative elements which characterize the natures of different men;* between the principles of preservation and improvement, on the right balance of which the quiet and well-being of society are suspended, often by too slender a thread. On the part of the Nomadic Gauchos of the pampas in the lower parts of South America, the principle of conservatism has taken the form of opposition to European emigration and civilization. It is the barbarism of the pampas, against the enlightenment of the cities; or, as an Argentine writer has quaintly expressed it, "the jacket against the long-tailed coat;" these two garments, in a manner similar to that in which we adopt popular political emblems, having become the distinctive representatives of two sides of the question.

After alternate attempts to organize the country, those parties took the names of Unitarians and Federalists. The Unitarians, or progressive party, desiring a centralized form of government; and the Federalists, the friends of barbarism, a confederation. From discussion they soon came to blows; and after many reciprocal victories and defeats, the city of Buenos Aires was taken by the Gauchos of the pampas, and Rosas, their leader, was finally installed in the government, in 1835, with dictatorial and irresponsible power. This power he has cemented by the usual means, and with the usual success; for brute force in him who commands, and servility and hypocrisy in him who obeys, travel generally with parallel strides.

This man is charged with having founded clubs of licensed murderers, who assassinated and poisoned, one by one, his chief competitors, or drove them from the country. Certain it is, that the country over which Rosas has ruled so long has decreased in population; towns and cities are in ruins, public archives mutilated, and the liberty of the press but a delusive fancy; and public schools, colleges, and hospitals are all gone, robbed, annihilated. He has carried on this exterminating war without any strong or well-combined effort, but with that hard and haughty obstinacy which destroyed in men's hearts affection as well as hope. A calculator cold as the womb of a snake, he is the imitator of Francia. A Machiavelli in policy,—as the Duke of Alba said when leaving Holland, so will Rosas say in this present hour of his tribulation, "all is lost from too much *lenity*."

It is useless to talk about the necessity of governing the Argentine people, or any other portion of the human family, in this manner; for a twelve years' knowledge of all parties among this people, and six years of personal acquaintance with Rosas and with all their prominent men, have taught me the contrary. Nor are these charges against Rosas false, or capable of extenuation, as he has so constantly said and published; for the eighteen years of his rule have brought the decimated Argentine nation, as one of themselves expresses it, almost to the condition of brutes. "They eat, sleep, keep silence, laugh if they can, and wait tranquilly, that in twenty years more their sons may walk on four feet." And it is certain that even Rosas himself has never pretended to charge similar crimes upon his enemies; and I assert, from my own knowledge and the documentary evidence in my possession, that they have never committed them.

I have dwelt somewhat upon the conduct of Gen. Rosas, by way of preparation for the concluding part of my paper. I shall there show the importance of the present movement throughout eastern South America, and shall be enabled to prove to you its character, and satisfy you as to the degree of confidence which may be placed in its professions and its ultimate results.

Under a system of government such as I have described, it may well be supposed that a permanent peace could never be established. The Unitarian party, like the caged bird, has constantly exerted itself to the utmost to open its wings; and at each attempt it has only lacerated itself afresh against the iron bars of its prison. Yet, notwithstanding its sufferings, it brought Gen. Rosas, in

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1840, and again in 1845, to the brink of destruction, on both which occasions he owed his safety to England and France.

The reception by Rosas of the Paraguayan application for recognition may well be imagined. The application has been refused, under frivolous and false pretexts, from that day to this; and Paraguay itself has been blockaded by paper edicts, against which it had no resource. For so long as Rosas, by means of his minions, governed the provinces of Corrientes and Entre-Rios, to the northward of the Paranà, he controlled the seven hundred miles of its navigation, in the most absolute manner; and Paraguay, deprived of all resources from without, and incapable of creating them within, has been obliged to keep as quiet as a lamb, whilst the U. S. Government, listening to the false representations of Rosas, has never, to this day, answered favorably the application of Paraguay for recognition. Thus Rosas, though always threatening to attack Paraguay, has never dared to do it; but, from its geographical position, he has made it pass eleven years more of isolation from the world.

Furthermore, Rosas has been the constant obstacle to all advancement in his own country. He has never allowed any steam-vessel to ascend the Paranà to Corrientes, nor has he ever given a favorable answer to the numerous propositions for exclusive rights to steam navigation which have been made to him, from time to time, and by individuals of different nations; for his power, founded upon those principles of barbarism which we have described, shuns the light of civilization and commercial concourse, and can only be upheld by the darkness of the tenth century.

Therefore the navigation of these magnificent avenues which intersect South America in all directions, has been confined to small boats and schooners, never exceeding two hundred tons, and generally of seventy or eighty tons burthen; the Paraguayan never descending, and the Argentine flag never ascending, beyond the city of Corrientes. The only communication which, during my last two years' residence in Paraguay, we were permitted to have with the outer world, consisted of a monthly mail, carried by an Indian scout over the province of Corrientes, from San Borja, on the banks of the Uruguay, to Candelaria, on the Paranà. It is evident to the most superficial observer, that a state of things like this cannot last for ever, and that men's minds in those countries must be brought gradually to understand their own interests. But it has taken them a long time to learn that they must rely upon themselves, and cast aside all hopes from English intervention or French generosity, or American indifference. Nine years have thus been lost; and hopes have been excited and deferred, during this time, by *seven* different ministers plenipotentiary from the English and French governments, who have disgraced the character of those two powerful nations, and at last driven men to move and think for themselves. Thus tyranny, cruelty, and insatiable ambition have again and again shown themselves ignorant of the laws which limit their destructive power. Gen. Rosas, after having thoroughly conquered his domestic enemies, should then have remained quiet within his own borders, and not have interfered with the domestic affairs of his neighbors. "Whereas, he has caused or upheld civil war in Bolivia, Brazil, and the Banda-Oriental; and, while constantly intriguing in Chili also, has hoped at the same time to consume Paraguay by a gradual atrophy."

As soon as it was fully understood throughout South America that the French President, under British influence, wished to abandon the city of Monte-Video to the power of Gen. Oribe, the lieutenant of Rosas, the Brazilian Cabinet began to look about amongst her neighbors, to unite them all in one league against the aggressions of Rosas, and to secure, for all concerned, the navigation of the rivers on firm and equal conditions. The first treaty was made in March last, with Paraguay; almost at the same time Monte-Video and the provinces of Corrientes and Entre-Rios all entered into the league, and they are bound to furnish, each and all, their quota of troops, and not to lay down their arms until the question of the navigation of the rivers is settled for ever. It is a movement of civilization, a natural and irresistible impulse of the human race in South America, against a retrograde and barbarous enemy of his kind.

It is to these allied states that we look for final success. The object could have been accomplished at any time,

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for Rosas has never been strong against foreign attacks. But the difficulty has been to unite interests, which, though common, were spread over such an immense extent of country, which was as yet almost without any intercommunication. This combination against Gen. Rosas has at length been effected with the most perfect success, and has thus far conquered all his partizans without firing a shot. Its character is clearly on the side of progress, civilization, and above all, humanity; for, previous to this movement, lenity towards competitors, and mercy towards dreaded offenders, were undiscovered virtues.

At the present moment,* Rosas is without money, allies, or troops; and a universal defection of all in whom he has placed confidence is only the natural consequence of his cruel system. The allies against him, backed by the steam navy of Brazil, are now invading his own territory; and Bolivia, Brazil, Paraguay, Corrientes, Entre-Rios, and the Banda-Oriental, for the first time since their existence as states, understand the vital necessity of prompt action. The war has ceased—or, rather, never existed—against the combined forces to the northward and eastward of the Paranà; and those who are about to invade the province of Buenos-Aires represent nearly ten millions of men; whilst the whole Argentine Republic, supposing that all parties were faithful to Rosas, cannot count more than seven or eight hundred thousand souls.

The political condition, therefore, of Paraguay, Brazil, Corrientes, Entre-Rios, and Monte-Video, is one worthy of our utmost attention, sympathy, and respectful regard. They have published their intentions and determinations, which are in entire accord with the most humane principles; and their actions have been perfectly consistent with their professions. They have invited foreigners, with their capital and commerce, published decrees regulating tariffs and custom-houses, and offered special rewards and exclusive rights for the introduction of steam, and all useful machines and implements of every kind, the produce of the industry of other countries.

PRESENT CONDITION OF PARAGUAY.—In reference to the present condition of these countries, it may well be imagined that there is room for great improvement. Yet if we speak of the elements to improve upon, it would be difficult to imagine any part of the world where they exist in greater or more spontaneous profusion. Bolivia, Brazil, and Paraguay, are the agricultural regions which must chiefly nourish the richest commerce, while the regions nearer the Atlantic Ocean yield all the productions of an enormous extent of pastoral countries. It is in the higher lands, up the rivers, where European emigration must find a home, and a field for congenial pursuits, which would not interfere with those of the native inhabitants. The knowledge which prevails among them about agriculture, is meagre in the extreme; and although in Paraguay they are principally an agricultural people, they know very little of the science. They are in the greatest want, too, of all our agricultural implements; upon each one of which, the introducer would receive a patent for ten years.

PRODUCTIONS OF THE COUNTRY.—Beginning with the head waters of the river Paraguay, we find the productions upon the Brazilian side to be, gold and precious stones, sugar, molasses, hides of extraordinary size, hair, tallow, wax, deer and tiger skins, with rice, corn, and the different manufactures of the mandioca root; in Bolivia, gold and precious stones, silver, coffee—considered by good judges to be equal to Mocha—and Peruvian bark. Though, undoubtedly, we could draw from these two countries many other productions of tropical America, yet it is in Paraguay that we find the greatest wealth of all these valleys.

Of this country and its commercial resources I can speak with the greatest certainty, from my own personal knowledge. Almost divided by the Tropic of Capricorn, its surface is like a chessboard, checkered here and there with beautiful pastures and magnificent forests. Unlike all other lands with which I am acquainted, it seems destined especially for the habitation of man. Here, in the eastern portion of our own land, the first settlers found the whole country covered with woods; west of the Mississippi the other extreme exists, in the vast extent of prairie destitute of timber. On the north of Brazil, in a similar manner are unbroken forests; in its southern parts, and throughout the Banda-Oriental, Entre-Rios, Corrientes, and the Argen-

* This was written in January, 1852.

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tine Republic, we find continuous pampas, like our prairies, in many instances, without bearing the necessary fuel even for household purposes. Not so in Paraguay, where, added to a sufficiency for building fleets of a thousand steamers, its forests teem with every description of ornamental and useful woods.

The vegetable kingdom of Paraguay presents the richest attractions, not merely to the professional botanist, but to that important class which is devoted to mercantile enterprise. The medicinal herbs which abound in the greatest profusion are rhubarb, sarsaparilla, jalap, bryonia indica, sassafras, holywood, dragons' blood, balsam of copaiba, nux vomica, liquorice, and ginger. Of dyestuffs, too, there is an immense variety. The cochineal, which is indeed an insect, but requiring for its food a species of the cactus plant; two distinct kinds of indigo; vegetable vermilion; saffron; golden rod; with other plants, producing all the tints of dark red, black, and green. Many of the forest trees yield valuable gums, not yet familiar to commerce or medicine; and they comprise some of the most delicious perfumes and incense that can be imagined. Others again are like amber, hard, brittle, and insoluble in water. Some cedars yield a gum equal to gum Arabic; others, a natural glue, which, when once dried, is unaffected by wet or dampness. The *seringa*, or rubber tree, the product of which is now almost a monopoly in Para, and also the palo santo, which produces the gum guiacum, crowd the forests, ready to give up their riches to the first comer; and the sweet-flavored vanilla modestly flourishes, as if inviting the hand of man.

Upon the hills, the celebrated yerba matté, which is the exclusive beverage of one-half of South America, has only to be gathered. Its preparation is in an exceedingly crude state, and could be beneficially improved by employing some of our corn-mills; and probably its use could be introduced into this country with advantage.

Upon the fertile alluvial banks of so many large streams, sugar-cane, cotton, tobacco, of a superior quality, rice, mandioca, Indian corn, and a thousand other productions, vegetate with profusion; whilst seven varieties of the bamboo line the river banks and dot the frequent lakes, with islets of touching beauty. On the plains, quantities of hides, hair, horns, bones, tallow, &c., are lost for want of transportation. If we go to the forests, we find two or three kinds of hemp, vast quantities of wax, the *Nux saponica*, or soap-nut, the cocoa, and vegetable oils in abundance, with two kinds of wild cotton, admirably adapted for the manufacture of paper. But it is with the forest trees of Paraguay that I love most to dwell. Giants! there they are, vast and noble in their aspect, and able, as it were, to utter for themselves the sublime music of the wilderness. Sixty varieties, already known, furnish timber of all kinds, and colors and degrees of durability, elasticity, and buoyancy. I have seen timbers of the Lapacho that have supported the roofs of houses in Buenos Aires for more than two hundred years. They are now as sound as ever, and, to all appearance, capable of performing the same service to the end of the world. A door-sill of the same wood, half-imbedded in the ground, and marked "1632," belonged to the front door of the house which I inhabited in the city of Asunçion. Upon the closest inspection, it was in a state of perfect preservation. Several other woods of this same variety are so heavy as to sink in water, and all, while difficult to burn in houses, form, under the force of a strong draught, a fire almost equal to stone-coal in intensity. Another tree, the Seibo, when green, is spongy and soft as cork, and can be cut like an apple; but when dry, it is so hard as almost to defy the action of steel. Again, we have the *Palo de vivora*, or snake-tree, whose leaves are an infallible cure for the poisonous bites of serpents. The *Palo de leche*, or milk-tree, may be called a vegetable cow; and the *Palo de borracho*, or drunken-tree, a vegetable distillery. The içica resin is found at the roots of trees under ground, and is a natural pitch, ready prepared to pay the seams of vessels.

But I have probably said enough on this part of my subject. My object has been to exhibit a slight sketch of the great wealth of Paraguay; a country to which the prophetic eye of the great founder of the Jesuits was turned, only nine years after the issue of the Papal bull which established the order, and where his followers enjoyed, for one hundred and eighty-six years, the greatest power and wealth which it has ever been their portion to possess at any time, or in any part of the world. To this end I have

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mentioned roots, gums, woods, and vegetables enough. We have found the forests spontaneously producing every thing necessary for the comfort and luxury of mankind, from the beautiful cotton-tree that affords him clothing, to the colors which suit his fancy as a dye; and from the woods that furnish his ship and house, or ornament his *escritoire*, to the herb that cures his sickness, or the incense that delights his olfactories. It is only necessary to add, that the climate is favorable to all the useful grains and table vegetables, with delicious fruits to support the frame and gratify the palate.

POPULATION AND CHARACTER OF PARAGUAY.—Of the *Anthropology* of Paraguay I have said nothing. Blumenbach himself would be puzzled to tell the original of some of the mongrel breeds to be found there. But the upper classes have ever been more regardful of their blood than in any part of Spanish or Portuguese America. They are brave, stout, and healthy, hospitable and simple-hearted in the ordinary relations of life, and exceedingly intelligent and keen in business affairs. Perfect confidence in the government and subordination to the laws, are two of their cardinal virtues; and security for life and property is the blessed consequence. Tyranny enough they have already suffered to have learned to escape its toils in future; and their chief desire is to learn those arts which may conduce to their comfort and happiness, and elevate their country to its proper position among the nations of the world. In return for that knowledge their commerce will bring to us much that we have never seen, and will cheapen, for our manufactures, what we already import from other parts of South America; while to the naturalist and the historian the most extensive fields of undeveloped richness and inexpressible beauty, will open at command.

As for the character of Carlos Antonio Lopez, the President of Paraguay, I must not quit his country without passing a just eulogium upon his talents and patriotism. For a man who has never passed the frontier of his country, he is really remarkable. He has been stained by no arbitrary bloodshed; and even under the circumstances which I described, of isolation from all the world, he has reformed and advanced his country in no ordinary degree. Its whole constitution, civil, political, and religious, is the work of his hands; and his decrees for the furtherance of commerce and agriculture, show a spirit of enlightenment rarely exhibited under similar circumstances. However much remains to be done, he knows that it must be done slowly; that too rapid an improvement must stand upon an insecure basis, which may crumble away and leave but its ruins behind.

Pursuing our route from Paraguay down the river Paranà, we pass the provinces of Corrientes and Entre-Rios, pastoral regions, whose development has been retarded, or rather stopped, by the Dictator of Buenos-Aires. In subjecting them to such custom-house regulations as he wished; in forcing them to carry their produce to Buenos-Aires, and there to receive his worthless paper money in return, he has driven them to understand the exclusiveness of a system which, under the name of "Federal," he has made more despotically centralized than his worst opponent of the Unitarian party ever desired.

OPENING FOR TRADE.—Under a free navigation for these delightful regions, their exports must double within six months, and a new impulse be given to all their affairs.

The commercial tendencies of all this section of country lean toward the United States, for many reasons. In the first place, we are, for our numbers, beyond all comparison the greatest consuming people of the earth. Whilst commerce with us adds to their wealth and comfort, that of England, our only rival, drains from them their very life-blood. We sell on barter or exchange, and many times have to pay the difference in specie, whilst the English sell their manufactures for good paper on time, and when the hard money is paid, it is not long in leaving the country and becoming embalmed in the vaults of the Bank of England.

Again, we are undoubtedly better acquainted with the wants and the means of development of new countries, than the older nations of Europe. It is also certain, we presume, that our manufactures, machinery, and agricultural implements, are better adapted for the wants of nascent communities, where labor is excessively dear, than can be the case in the old world, where the overcrowded masses are struggling for employment, and for the right to exist.

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Furthermore, these regions produce spontaneously many valuable articles of commerce, for which we are now almost exclusively dependent upon the British East-Indian possessions, paying for them such a price as the English choose to demand. It is for this reason that the British Government has regulated its policy so as to support the barbarous system of Rosas; whilst, at the same time, she has endeavored to make such treaties as would secure her the precedence, should he ever fall from power.

Again, all those productions of these valleys which European commerce requires, could be furnished to Europe by way of the United States, in less time, and consequently at less expense, than they can be by going direct, no matter whether we use steam or sailing vessels. But so long as England uses steam, and we use only sails, then we can communicate in less time (that is to say, once a month with Monte-Video and Buenos-Aires), by way of England, than direct from this city.

A study of the wind and current charts of my distinguished friend, Mr. Maury, of the National Observatory at Washington, as well as the statistics of voyages from the Rio de la Plata to New-York, and any point of Europe, will amply prove this assertion.

Then, again, all the productions of Bolivia which reach any Atlantic market, are obliged to be carried across the Andes on mules, and exported at Cobija, the only port which she possesses; and, doubling Cape Horn, at length they reach us, loaded with such expenses as almost completely kills any attempt of that fertile country to produce anything which may compete with similar productions in the commerce of the world.

Upon political grounds, also, I hope to convince you that the commercial tendencies of South America set strongly in our favor, though our government has much to do to make up for the faults of the past.

The world contains only three great commercial nations, one of which is rapidly being swallowed up by the other two. Two of these nations, England and France, have constantly interfered in the Rio de la Plata; and though from different motives, they have both contributed in producing one monotonous result: that of continuing a state of anarchy and confusion, and creating a natural hatred and distrust of other governments. Yet, whilst the conduct of the British has produced a strong feeling against individuals of that nation, the conduct of the French has produced a strong sympathy for them, assisted by similarity in religion, language, and philosophy. The high-handed capture of the Falkland Islands by the British, and the English settlements in the Straits of Magellan; the singular manner in which England withdrew from the combined intervention against Rosas, as if striving to throw upon France the odium of its failure; the servility of her representatives in Buenos-Aires and Monte-Video, together with her loans of money to starving governments at an exorbitant interest,—all these things have ruined her hopes of commercial success, save when backed by the cannon of her fleets.

In the mean time, men's minds are convinced of the great mistake which was made in listening to the enticing words of Mr. Canning; and they are anxiously desiring to strengthen those bonds of commercial communication with us, long ago formed by Messrs. Clay, Monroe, and Adams, and afterwards so unfortunately neglected by their successor, General Jackson. They are awakening to the fact, that with us they have no political intrigues to fear, and that our commercial competition is most for their advantage; and that though we have pursued a timid, irresolute, and time-serving policy with General Rosas, we have never injured, save by sins of omission, any party or any man.

In fact, our only sources of complaint have been against General Rosas; and our complaints have been legitimate and just, although circumstances have held them in abeyance; whilst European attacks against him, always misrepresented in this country by his mendacious press, have produced among us a feeling of sympathy for the position of the man. He has refused to pay or arrange the American claims, which have been pending against Buenos-Aires ever since 1828. He has placed such a duty upon American flour as amounts to a prohibition; he has forbidden our vessels to carry passengers from Buenos-Aires; and he has constantly refused to make treaties with us, under pretence that he did not possess the requisite power of ratification.

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Yet, in the face of all this, he has made and signed treaties with England and France; he has given to the British packets an exclusive right of carrying passengers from Buenos-Aires; and he has permitted those vessels to delay the delivery of their mails, except to interested parties, even for as long as three days after their arrival. At the same time, he has cajoled the American government, by throwing himself upon their generosity; he has procured the trial of Captain Voorhies, of the United States frigate *Congress*, and had him suspended for an act which was a noble vindication of our national honor against his arrogant extortions; and he has managed to prevent all attention being paid, by the American government or people, to the cause of Paraguay. This American sympathy has been the only one which has sustained him among the nations of the earth,—he, whose power, built upon constant war and agitation as an occupation for his Gaucho soldiers, has never known a moment's peace,—he is the one to whom we can trace, infallibly, all the difficulties of the last twenty years on the Rio de la Plata.

However, I trust that the time has come when these subjects will be better understood among us. They certainly will be, when our interests are more widely extended in those parts of the world. Then shall we feel that Paraguay —the richest of those countries in all that conduces to the comfort and happiness of mankind—is really the most powerful element in the affairs of the Rio de la Plata, from this time forward; and that, being the *element of order, and peace, and progress herself*, she will necessarily influence her neighbors for good, in no small degree.

There are still other considerations of the greatest weight connected with this subject, which I must be excused for touching upon with freedom. I am aware that, throughout our community, great reluctance is felt to place property of value in the hands of the Spanish race upon this continent; and precedents are not wanting to prove that reclamations, pending before our government on this score, have dragged their weary length along, oftentimes leaving the claimants nothing to live upon but the empty deceptions of hope. Pope Paul IV. is reported to have said that the Spanish race was "the dregs of the earth,—an infamous *mélange* of the Jew and the Arab." (*Lavallée Hist. des Français*, vol. ii., p. 340.) Yet it must be recollected that popes have not always spoken the truth; and, besides, what might have been true then, is not necessarily true now. Nations change through time and circumstances; and there are decided signs that the state of the Spanish race on the shores of the Plata is changing at the present moment. I confess myself a believer in the philosophical truths of history, which convince us that the universal laws of decay and reproduction, belong alike to individuals and to nations, as well as to the whole animate and inanimate creation besides. But, as yet, the unmistakable signs of decadency which belong to the old world, have no home among us of the new. The very necessities of mankind must fill up our boundless wastes sooner or later. As also in the lives of individuals, so in those of nations, crises occur over which man himself has no control. Now, Europe labors under the weight of the most terrible that has ever fallen to her lot since the creation of the world. Her oppressed millions will not all stand in hopeless anguish, whilst the New World opens to their longing gaze its countless acres for their occupation, and whilst its cheerful soil brings forth spontaneously all the wealth-bearing productions of every clime.

The movement of French, Italian, and German emigration towards the region of the La Plata, already considerable, must augment, for many reasons, in a far greater ratio than we have ever known it with us. The sympathetic feelings of affection and protection will take out there thousands whose parents, relations, or friends, have already emigrated; whilst the price of land is much less than in this country, and the sympathies of race, religion, customs and language, for two of the three above-mentioned nations, naturally lead them thither. This emigration, composed of the best elements, for our purposes, which European society contains, must only increase by each domestic convulsion or despotic encroachment; and I know, from facts that came to my knowledge in Paris, that large arrangements are already entered into for emigration during the coming season.

These emigrants will not, as many persons too hastily imagine, become elements of disorder in their new home;

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for those portions of the New World furnish no incentives to anarchy, while they offer every reward for honest labor. Nor is it true that because they are often elements of anarchy at home, under the pressure of want and idleness, their conduct will be the same where no such pressure exists. On the contrary, I am satisfied that, as they have already preserved, so they will contribute to increase, the element of civilization in South America; and I am equally convinced that they must absorb, in a few generations, the two or three millions of natives, who, proud and disdainful, with few exceptions, refuse to learn from others, and have no idea of advancing themselves. Thus, under proper management, we may expect to see a new nation truly republican, rising up on the shores of the La Plata, within a few years, founded upon the *débris* of liberty in the Old World, and without containing in its elements the only plague-spot to be found upon our own incomparable body politic.

That the people and government of the United States may be properly represented in the future of these magnificent countries, now that they have the opportunity of so doing, they should move the *first and foremost* in the matter. The order of Providence seems to have constituted us the protector and teacher of the other parts of our hemisphere; and it is a duty which we have hitherto but poorly performed. Again, it is the evident policy of our government to protect all small states from the encroachments of their more powerful neighbors, *as far as they can do so by diplomatic action;* and the more especially, when they desire it themselves, as in the case of Paraguay and Monte-Video. In reference to this latter state, I have said nothing. But to make more evident still the great supineness of some of our past administrations, I will state that Monte-Video has always been the last refuge of civilization, and the only constant upholder of constitutional government on the shores of the La Plata. Yet, although such has been her character, as I am amply able to prove, she has never met with any notice or favor from us; but the contrary. I have now among my papers some records, procured from the files of the Oriental Legation at Paris during my late visit there, and which cannot be untrue. They are a correspondence, under date of December 14, 1841, between Senor Ellauri, the Oriental minister, and General Cass, our minister at Paris, in which the former, in accordance with special instructions and powers which he had received for that purpose, offers to make a treaty of friendship, commerce, and navigation with the United States. This, be it remarked, was in a time of profound peace for the Banda-Oriental, and whilst General Rosas was engaged in subduing the upper Argentine provinces. General Cass states his want of instructions, and applies to his government. His government—that is, the government of the United States—answers him, and he replies to the Oriental minister, under date of March 5th, 1842: "I have been instructed to inform you that, although the United States are desirous to extend and improve commercial and friendly relations with the governments of the Western Hemisphere, and to place them under the high sanction of conventional stipulations; yet, under existing circumstances, and particularly while war continues between the Argentine Republic and your Government, and while that region is in an unsettled and unquiet state, the moment does not seem favorable to the development of its resources, nor to the formation of new diplomatic relations with other countries. The President of the United States, therefore, thinks it necessary to defer, to a more favorable opportunity, the further expression of his amicable disposition towards the Oriental Republic, and the negotiations for the regulation of its intercourse with the United States."

In a letter to me, of October 30, 1851, Señor Ellauri says, "I ought to make you notice, a very especial circumstance it is, that the only nation with which my government has taken the initiative to invite them to celebrate treaties of friendship, commerce, and navigation, has been that of the United States; with all others, we ourselves have been the invited parties, even by England."

Thus, then, we have seen that the Banda-Oriental sought our connection in 1842; Paraguay, in 1843—*both of which states have been treated with complete indifference.* For this we owe them at least some reparation; and to call the attention and speculation of all persons to beautiful and fertile South America, it is only necessary for the government of the United States to give to these

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countries that impulse which is the indispensable element of civilization and of Christianity. With such friendly aid as it can supply, a sudden metamorphosis will transform the face of these countries. The power of steam will reproduce upon their waters the wonderful results which have marked its introduction among ourselves, and which to our benighted brethren of South America appear but the phantasy of a dream. If we lead them to adopt those modes of commerce for which they have such unsurpassed yet unexplored advantages, we shall open to them a new era of grandeur and happiness, of which they cannot form as yet any adequate conception.

In four days a steamboat could run up from Monte-Video to Asunçion, and in eight days to the interior of Bolivia and Brazil. A shorter time will carry the return voyager to the mouth of the Rio de la Plata, after having touched, in both trips, at the many cities and villages upon the banks, leaving in them the spirit of life and wealth, and through these the benefits of education and refinement.

The time has arrived when all things tend, in the old world and in the new, to the realization of these most magnificent projects; in a word, to the opening of an entire new world to our enterprise. Why let the opportunity slip from our grasp, to be certainly seized upon, in a few months, by our only rivals, the English?

The best commercial statistics fully prove what I advance. For, in 1842, when not half a dozen individuals in each port of the United States had a dollar invested in the Rio de la Plata, the American tonnage which had arrived in the port of Monte-Video for the seven previous years, amounted to 113,696 tons, and fell short of the British by only 57,586 tons. For the year 1842—a year of peace—the total of the imports and exports of Monte-Video, with only a small back country, and without any aid from Bolivia, Brazil, Paraguay, Corrientes, or Entre-Rios, amounted to $22,558.762; of which the Americans had the third share. Thus, if under circumstances of governmental abandonment and general want of confidence we did thus much, what ought we to do now?

I do not surpass probability when I say, that the appearance of an American river steamboat in those waters would increase our exportations to these regions a million of dollars the first year, and that this amount would double every six months thereafter, for a considerable period of time. This boat would procure the exclusive right for the navigation of these waters, from Bolivia, Brazil, and Paraguay; and the company, during the existence of their monopoly, could control, in every respect, all imports and exports.

I have said that the attention of the English merchants is largely drawn to this important question. As far back as 1845, the South American merchants of that country petitioned the Queen to force open the navigation of the Paranà (in the same manner as their countrymen procured a trade with China); "because," said they, "in a few years its trade will be only second to that of your Majesty's East-Indian possessions."

They said well; for the southern provinces of the empire of Brazil, Paraguay and Bolivia, and the other territories watered by the tributaries of the La Plata, offer to a legitimate commercial ambition nearly nine hundred thousand miles square of virgin lands, very much more profitably situated for commercial intercourse with the globe than the Chinese empire, owing to their superior geographical, as well as social position. In China we are obliged to struggle against a traditional policy which repels the foreigner, and against a high industrial development which rejects almost all our manufactured goods, with the exception of *such as come from the national mint;* besides which, the Chinese are generally short-lived, and infanticide is common among them. In South America, on the contrary, we find a fresh population, ignorant of the words *economy, scarcity,* because they know not *want.* These people, the reverse of the Chinese, expect the wants as well as they demand the benefits which civilization brings in its train. Therefore we ought not, cannot remain deaf to the appeal which they make us. *Shame* should hinder us from permitting the English to be considered, on any part of our own continent, as the head of civilization and all progress rather than ourselves.

In vain has a third of a century passed since we conferred upon these people the blessings of national independence. In

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vain have opposing interests labored for a long time to efface the remembrance of this our noble act. In vain have our own errors come in aid of those interests which are opposed to us. The name of Henry Clay, as the champion of South American independence, still survives among them. It is only necessary to give to this remembrance a proper tendency, and it will revivify and spread abroad; it will infuse itself into the ideas and the manners, into the material and moral wants of those people who love us, that we may become the law of their interests; for this is what their sympathies demand.

Contrast opportunities and feelings like these, with the proportionate dislike of the snares of monarchial influences, from which they have suffered so much. Consider, in addition, the hopeless debt and consequent oppression, in one form or another, under the apprehension of which all the nations of South America, except Paraguay and Chili, so heavily labor; and our view into the future, of what we ought to do and can do, becomes clear and distinct. The time for talking is over. If we do not wish to be distanced, anticipated, superseded, we must act, and act without delay.

If we follow on in the path thus open before us, emigration and steam will speedily call into action those sympathies of which I just now spoke. Incomparable instruments of peaceful revolution, they promise to these magnificent countries the most abundant development for the happiness of the human race. Under their vigorous impulse solitudes will be peopled, inertness will become action, and the earth will yield its fruits an hundred fold. The travels and investigations of scientific men, the introduction of machinery and new means of labor, together with a new spirit of energy and enterprise, will bless all persons with new discoveries of unbounded usefulness, before unknown. Thus resting upon those solid foundations which alone can give a permanent existence to liberty, a new *terra firma* of prosperity and peace will rapidly loom up from among the sinking billows of discord and civil war, which have so long swept in all their fury over some of the fairest regions on the face of the earth.

In conclusion, I wish it to be distinctly understood, though I have made some forcible statements, and made therefrom my own deductions, that I do not desire to wound the prejudices or the partialities of any person whatever. I trust that I have spoken in accordance with the opportunities of information which I have enjoyed, and in conformity to the principles of human progress and humanity.

The American people seem to be very desirous at the present moment to extend the *area of freedom*. Some have gone to Cuba and the Sandwich Islands. Others would like to go to Hungary and even to Moscow, notwithstanding its bad reputation as a winter residence for an invading force. And it is only a little of this spirit, differently applied, which I have desired to see extend itself to South America.

NOTE.—Mr. Hopkins has used, throughout his memoir, the orthography of the language in which the different places therein mentioned have been named. His reasons for declining to anglicize proper names, in reference to geography, may probably be made the subject of a future paper before the Society.

ART. VIII.—COMMERCIAL GROWTH OF BOSTON.

WE have frequently referred in the pages of the Review to the rapid growth of Boston in all the elements of population and commercial power, and we condensed a great many of our statistics upon this subject into the volumes of Industrial Resources published by us last summer. In order that the subject may be brought down to date, we draw upon the reports of the Shipping List for many interesting particulars, in relation to the commerce of the year which closed on the 1st January, 1853.

The business of the year, says the Shipping List, shows a good and healthy increase in nearly every department, and, on the whole, has been highly satisfactory. Cotton goods and boots and shoes, the leading articles of our manufacture, have been unusually active throughout the year, and the quantity taken for export and home consumption

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largely exceeds that of any previous year. Our Canada neighbors find us so closely connected with them by railroads, and the means of communication so easy and rapid, that a larger number than usual have been induced to visit us, and have purchased freely of staple articles suited to their market; and, in return, we have consumed and exported a much larger amount of their produce. This branch of our trade promises well for the future. The exports to and the imports from the British Provinces indicate a very large and healthy increase. The California trade has been very active and prosperous, and attended with few or none of the disasters of previous years. A succession of splendid clipper ships have been promptly dispatched for that market throughout the year, with large and very valuable cargoes of produce and manufactured articles. The number of clearances will show at a glance the extent of our California trade:

	1852.	1851.	1850.	1849.
Ships	78	22	53	58
Barks	14	12	57	37
Brigs	5	1	31	41
Schooners	1	—	25	15
Total	98	35	166	151

Although the number of vessels is less than in 1850 and 1849, it should be remembered that, the past year, they were nearly all large clipper ships, from 1,000 to 2,500 tons burthen, while in 1850 and 1849 they were generally moderate sized vessels. Every other leading branch of our business has also equally increased during the year. Statements to the prejudice of our merchants, circulated south and west, have failed to divert or embarrass any of our trade. But, while our business men are thus successfully contending against attacks from abroad, and doing all in their power to promote the interests and prosperity of our city, it is to be regretted that they have to meet with unlooked-for obstacles at home. Our legislators have deemed it necessary to enact very stringent laws—heretofore looked upon as foreign to the purposes of legislation—having a tendency to interfere with and embarrass several branches of our manufacture and foreign trade, and materially injure the business of the city. The law known as the "Maine Liquor Law" has as yet been inoperative and its influence unfelt; but as there is a disposition to put it fully in force the coming year, we feel that nearly all branches of our trade will suffer in consequence. It is certainly a new kind of legislation, when the legitimate business of a large number of respectable and upright citizens is interfered with, in order to try a doubtful experiment on the morals of a few erring ones. We hope, however, that our present legislature, while promoting the cause of temperance by all wholesome restraints and laws, will deem it their duty to repeal this unjust and therefore intemperate one.

The arrivals from foreign ports for ten years past have been as follows at Boston:

	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schs.	Total.
1852	236	332	840	1,456	2,864
1851	191	288	817	1,542	2,838
1850	180	269	846	1,533	2,828
1849	238	305	908	1,732	3,183
1848	243	310	902	1,646	3,101
1847	182	262	698	1,613	2,755
1846	146	213	531	1,162	2,052
1845	159	215	550	1,406	2,330
1844	154	217	607	1,221	2,199
1843	127	153	524	946	1,750

The foreign clearances for the same period have been as follows:

	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schs.	Total.
1852	188	350	839	1,486	2,863
1851	133	349	806	1,560	2,848
1850	160	266	798	1,447	2,671
1849	159	309	888	1,754	3,110
1848	159	315	887	1,449	2,810
1847	116	228	626	1,556	2,526
1846	95	192	480	1,214	1,981
1845	102	207	514	1,344	2,167
1844	92	203	520	1,166	1,981
1843	78	149	477	883	1,587

The coastwise arrivals, and the clearances, as far as known, as many are not entered at the custom-house, for a number of years, have been as follows:

	Arrivals.	Clearances.
1852	6,286	3,291
1851	6,334	3,181
1850	5,978	3,086
1849	6,199	3,174
1848	6,118	3,187
1847	7,125	3,198
1846	6,775	2,672
1845	5,631	3,054
1844	5,312	2,830
1843	4,944	2,497

COFFEE TRADE OF BOSTON.—The imports the last three years have been as follows:

From	1852.	1851.	1850.
Batavia...bags & piculs	53,448	61,014	49,774
Hayti.....bags	84,707	71,969	59,433
Rio Janeiro..... "	22,490	13,343	3,452
Porto Cabello..... "	3,230	6,212	3,589
Manilla..... "	5,342	1,676	943
Other foreign ports. "	4,781	3,590	6,392
Coastwise..... "	3,307	2,795	2,298
Total bags	177,305	162,368	125,881

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The exports to foreign and coastwise ports have been as follows:

		Foreign.	Coastwise.
1852	bags	35,388	70,759
1851	"	22,998	63,471
1850	"	28,536	51,574
1849	"	29,065	76,717
1848	"	45,827	58,429
1847	"	25,098	116,713

COTTON TRADE OF BOSTON.—The imports the past year have been as follows:

From New-Orleans	bales		131,877
" Mobile	"		42,935
" Charleston	"		12,929
" Savannah	"		30,660
" Apalachicola	"		37,626
" Galveston	"		18,809
" Other places	"		6,330
Total 1852			281,166
" 1851			204,232
" 1850			155,076
" 1849			270,693
" 1848			239,958
" 1847			198,932
" 1846			193,549
" 1845			187,619
" 1844			175,529
" 1843			151,090

The exports from this port to foreign ports have been as follows:

1852	bales	3,146
1851	"	2,217
1850	"	1,885
1849	"	4,308
1848	"	7,766
1847	"	6,477
1846	"	7,187

DYEWOODS.—St. Domingo logwood has been sold during the year at from $11 *a* $13 25 per ton, duty paid; sapan wood from $30 *a* $40; and Cuba fustic $34 *a* $39 per ton. The imports for three years have been as follows:

		1852.	1851.	1850.
Logwood	tons	10,998	7,789	12,431
Fustic	"	463	675	1,466
Fustic	pieces	12,360	4,693	15,530
Sapan wood	tons	371	449	265

The exports for three years have been:

		1852.	1851.	1850.
Logwood	tons	8,131	6,889	9,119
Sapan wood	"	277	171	186
Fustic	"	205	331	567

DRY GOODS, DOMESTIC TRADE OF BOSTON.—The exports have been as follows:

	Packages.	Value.
To East Indies	26,677	$1,252,051 08
" South America	23,603	1,125,205 89
" Sandwich Islands	315	22,771 52
" Smyrna	1,279	77,676 84
" Gibraltar & a market	680	35,560 18
" Malta & a market	675	37,740 84
" Palermo	30	2,159 40
" Constantinople	45	3,119 52
" Rio Grande	712	36,649 00
" Buenos Ayres	1,200	60,110 26
To Rio la Plata, &c	782	36,904 11
" Rio Janeiro	1,026	64,181 25
" Pernambuco	103	4,923 58
" Africa	95	5,510 46
" Cape of Good Hope	553	28,631 27
" Fayal	68	3,156 28
" Pacific Ocean	28	1,660 24
" Honduras	582	32,194 03
" Porto Cabello	470	21,090 40
" St. Thomas	41	2,600 00
" Hayti	2,018	154,313 41
" Provinces	1,631	79,064 65
" Rio Hache	17	776 23
" Curacao	14	665 50
" Surinam	6	332 00
" San Juan	8	320 00
" Turk's Island	6	393 00
" Aspinwall	1	78 65
" Bermuda	3	167 00
" Liverpool	1	100 00
Total 1852	62,669	$3,090,106 59
" 1851	47,007	2,507,703 04
" 1850	34,307	1,896,148 19
" 1849	33,309	1,600,457 65
" 1848	50,952	2,266,392 84

COAL.—The imports of foreign coal at this port have been as follows:

	Tons.	Chal.
From Great Britain	9,343	48
" Provinces	—	40,716
Total 1852	9,343	40,764
" 1851	8,487	30,330
" 1850	6,251	32,486
" 1849	12,062	34,531
" 1848	5,795	41,303
" 1847	4,251	47,093
" 1846	5,233	21,127
" 1845	13,629	27,674
" 1844	7,552	19,067
" 1843	5,050	17,800

The imports from domestic ports have been as follows:

	Tons.	Bushels.
From Philadelphia	360,669	—
" Alexandria	8,537	—
" Baltimore	37,219	—
" Other places	24,645	—
" Virginia	—	14,000
Total 1852	431,270	14,000
" 1851	361,073	80,880
" 1850	289,571	52,375
" 1849	261,293	20,800
" 1848	275,246	48,600
" 1847	261,259	127,525
" 1846	187,028	151,900
" 1845	171,023	284,475
" 1844	139,566	170,850
" 1843	117,451	150,813

PROVISIONS.—The receipts of provisions have been as follows:

		1852.	1851.	1850.
Beef	bbls.	28,115	32,365	38,042
Pork	bbls.	72,016	76,004	146,545
Hams	casks	7,916	7,759	12,237
"	bbls.	2,049	3,559	4,841
Lard	bbls.	37,658	41,926	51,333
"	kegs	37,972	21,013	60,915
Cheese	bxs	116,816	88,292	88,574
"	casks	8,050	8,015	7,052
"	tons	607	730	749
Butter	tubs	199,814	169,113	70,104
"	bbls.	1,356	546	778
Hogs	(No. of)	37,332	30,964	36,766

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The exports to foreign and coastwise ports have been as follows:

		1852.	1851.
Pork, foreign	bbls	15,962	14,313
" coastwise	"	14,270	22,564
Lard, foreign	"	5,645	13,523
" coastwise	"	4,688	2,541
Lard, foreign	kegs	13,256	13,813
" coastwise	"	11,621	7,177
Beef, foreign	bbls	9,152	5,784
" coastwise	"	2,815	4,053
Cheese, foreign	bxs	11,249	9,084
" coastwise	"	2,745	4,135
Cheese, foreign	casks	60	156
" coastwise	"	105	302

FISH.—The inspection returns of mackerel have not yet been completed, but as far as received indicate a material falling off compared with the last few years. This is owing in part to the impediments thrown in the way of our fishermen by the British authorities. Prices have ruled unusually high, in consequence of the limited supplies and the increased demand for consumption. The current rates for mackerel, early in the year, were $8 25 for No. 1; $6 50 *a* $6 75 for No. 2; $5 for No. 3, large sizes; and $4 25 and $3 75 for No. 2 and 3, small sizes; but prices soon advanced, and the bulk of the sales during the year have been made at $2 *a* $4 per bbl. advance on the opening prices. The highest and lowest prices obtained the past two years were as follows:

	—*Highest*—		—*Lowest*—	
	1852.	1851.	1852.	1851.
No. 1, large	$12 50	$11 00	$8 25	$8 00
No. 2	11 00	8 75	6 50	6 25
No. 3	8 00	5 25	5 00	4 25

Codfish have been sold during the year from $2 50 *a* $4 25 for large, and $1 87 *a* $3 for small, an unusually light stock, in May last, causing prices to run up to the highest figures. The principal sales have been at $3 *a* $3 50 for large, and $2 *a* $2 50 for small, which is from 25 *a* 50c. per qtl. higher than the current rates of last year. Hake and haddock have been sold from $1 25 *a* $2 25 per qtl.

The import of mackerel from the Provinces, for six years past, has been as follows:

1852	bbls	48,570
1851	"	43,329
1850	"	37,920
1849	"	41,856
1848	"	33,265
1847	"	59,098

The imports of other kinds of fish from the Provinces show a very large increase compared with previous years, as follows:

		1852.	1851.	1850.
Salmon	tierces	2,260	1,965	1,237
"	bbls	2,279	3,723	2,276
"	boxes	1,026	2,228	300
"	kitts	—	—	16
"	No.	—	—	200
Herring	bbls	20,567	6,311	7,441
"	bxs	—	100	—
"	tcs	12	—	—
Alewives	bbls	13,451	8,308	4,595
Shad	bbls	486	127	83
Halibut	bbls	—	24	—
Trout	bbls	34	30	—
Codfish	qtls	48,110	11,185	1,789
"	casks	241	100	31
"	drums	2,856	5,30	—
"	bbls	321	—	—
"	bdls	729	—	—
"	No.	170,000	—	—
Pollock	qtls	421	629	—
"	bxs	10	—	—
Hake	qtls	4,112	—	—
"	casks	50	—	—
Haddock	qtls	97	—	—
Fish	drums	70	—	—
"	casks	93	—	—
"	qtls	2,888	—	—
"	bxs	200	—	—

The export of fish for three years past has been as follows:

		1852.	1851.	1850.
Codfish	drums	7,356	3,559	4,109
"	bxs	12,483	8,366	5,494
"	qtls	53,568	59,679	75,003
Mackerel	bbls	120,043	122,106	99,965
Herring	bxs	17,529	14,585	12,936

FRUIT.—The imports have been as follows:

		1852.	1851.	1850.
Lemons	bxs	49,711	32,570	34,661
Oranges	bxs	94,626	108,877	65,043
Figs	drums	296,891	325,707	244,793
"	cases	2,521	2,114	1,523
Raisins	casks	16,402	28,374	20,678
"	drums	9,171	5,518	4,583
"	bxs	164,753	180,802	187,679

FLOUR.—The receipts have been as follows:

By rail-road — Western	bbls	250,811
" Northern	bbls	45,669
" Fitchburg	bbls	148,292
" Boston & Maine	bbls	98,817
By water—From New-York	bbls	57,997
" Albany	bbls	15,065
" New-Orleans	bbls	67,460
" Fredericksburg	bbls	32,483
" Georgetown	bbls	19,410
" Alexandria	bbls	17,996
" Richmond	bbls	67,364
" Other ports in Va.	bbls	5,120
" Philadelphia	bbls	14,038
" Baltimore	bbls	40,721
" Other places	bbls	15,211
Total 1852	bbls	896,454
" 1851	bbls	773,512
" 1850	bbls	761,148
" 1849	bbls	1,026,309
" 1848	bbls	935,578
" 1847	bbls	1,027,719
" 1846	bbls	750,432
" 1845	bbls	730,188
" 1844	bbls	686,586
" 1843	bbls	610,964

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From the records of the Western Railroad, we copy the following comparative monthly statement of the receipts of flour for the past five years:

COMPARATIVE MONTHLY STATEMENT OF THE RECEIPTS OF FLOUR FOR THE PAST FIVE YEARS.

	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.
Jan.	15,027	4,606½	3,597	6,786	6,453
Feb.	9,011½	2,906½	3,763	2,765	9,185½
March	5,423	4,380½	4,950	1,461½	9,060½
April	6,947	4,739½	1,448½	6,372½	4,226½
May	27,011	38,946½	38,993½	39,305	17,836½
June	38,838	31,807½	11,778	38,481	34,759
July	39,023	22,791½	13,329½	17,151	28,346½
Aug.	25,386	9,606	22,690½	15,436	20,537½
Sept.	35,275	30,002	51,805	21,500½	23,131½
Oct.	61,172½	70,396	77,357½	30,151½	27,253½
Nov.	71,332½	101,274½	106,700½	51,169	38,860½
Dec.	18,090½	33,764	36,495½	11,887	31,120½
Total	364,372½	343,507½	367,808½	242,466	250,811

The exports of flour have been as follows:

To foreign ports	bbls....	226,324
To coastwise	bbls....	43,447
Total 1852		269,771
" 1851		177,346
" 1850		115,316
" 1849		153,933
" 1848		129,678
" 1847		186,728
" 1846		159,117

TOBACCO.—The stock of leaf tobacco in first hands is 700 hhds. against 900 hhds. in 1851, 600 hhds. in 1850, 800 hhds. in 1849, 1,250 hhds. in 1848, and 1,500 hhds. in 1847. The imports have been as follows:

	Hhds.	Bales.	Boxes & kegs.
1852	2,316	4,641	51,608
1851	2,691	3,663	41,794
1850	2,161	4,946	35,179
1849	2,091	8,350	27,089
1848	2,112	4,544	32,013
1847	3,004	4,780	38,750
1846	1,381	4,410	33,442

The amount inspected in Boston for eight years past has been as follows:

	Hhds.
1852	1,515
1851	1,690
1850	1,361
1849	1,470
1848	1,664
1847	2,258
1846	1,042
1845	4,624

The exports of tobacco were as follows:

	Hhds.	Bales and cases.	Boxes and kegs.
1852	991	6,036	19,452
1851	1,146	4,104	17,567
1850	810	4,030	7,673
1849	1,540	3,714	9,623
1848	1,619	2,534	9,108
1847	1,827	4,243	10,773

SUGARS.—The imports were as follows:

	Hhds. & cks.	Bbls.	Bags.	Boxes.
Foreign	14,849	1,193	98,632	83,210
Coastwise	1,788	7,461	—	3,267
Total 1852	16,637	8,654	98 632	86,477
" 1851	13,667	5,843	88,126	84,828
" 1850	15,797	8,021	53,312	86,619
" 1849	11,032	17,502	71,042	47,733
" 1848	11,796	5,964	74,129	72,661

The exports for the past five years to foreign ports have been as follows:

	Boxes.	Hhds. & cks.	Bbls.	Bags.
1852	6,157	429	4,846	—
1851	3,451	1,904	2,760	—
1850	7,750	701	5,959	900
1849	9,717	521	1,554	1,249
1848	5,887	941	2,185	2,500
1847	5,450	272	3,292	360

MOLASSES.—The quantity taken by distillers during the year comprises 39,000 hhds. of all kinds, of which about 27,500 hhds. were sour Cuba at 16 *a* 19½c., the principal sales from 16 *a* 18½c. In 1851, 35,000 hhds. were taken, sour Cuba selling from 17 *a* 20; in 1850, 31,500 hhds. at 17½ *a* 23c.; in 1849, 29,000 hhds. at 17 *a* 21½c.; and in 1848, 26,650 hhds. at 15 *a* 20c. for Cuba. The import of the year shows a considerable falling off compared with last year. The stock of all kinds now at hand is 1,500 hhds., against 3,100 hhds. in 1851, 5,000 hhds. 1850, and 3,500 hhds. in 1849. The imports have been as follows:

	Hhds.	Tierces.	Bbls.
Foreign	46,681	3,302	1,245
Coastwise	24,823	97	3,236
Total 1852	71,504	3,339	4,481
" 1851	81,412	4,531	3,621
" 1850	73,316	3,800	5,998
" 1849	72,545	3,662	3,342
" 1848	77,675	4,483	7,216
" 1847	78,278	4,474	2,875
" 1846	69,308	3,144	2,661
" 1845	59,790	3,725	13,433
" 1844	77,426	—	—
" 1843	57,660	—	—

The exports have been:

	Hhds.	Tierces.	Bbls.
To foreign ports	1,905	364	117
Coastwise	4,414	125	3,088
Total 1852	6,319	509	3,205
" 1851	8,893	696	4,771
" 1850	11,107	539	3,854
" 1849	15,781	824	736
" 1848	13,967	357	507
" 1847	29,586	2,700	1,253
" 1846	17,686	2,209	165

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CORN MEAL, WHEAT, &c.—The receipts of corn meal for seven years past have been as follows:

	Bbls.
1852	16,295
1851	10,262
1850	13,838
1849	28,185
1848	41,144
1847	25,080
1846	8,637

The exports have been:

	Bbls.
1852	20,605
1851	10,917
1850	19,327
1849	32,788
1848	42,849
1847	44,903
1846	8,651

GRAIN.—The receipts of corn have been as follows:

	Bushels.
From New-Orleans	434,535
" Virginia	353,345
" Maryland	404,945
" Pennsylvania	165,453
" Delaware	31,300
" New-York & Western Rail-road	688,014
" Other places	39,847
Total 1852	2,118,338

The receipts of corn and oats for a number of years have been as follows:

		Corn.	Oats.
1852	bushels	2,118,338	849,173
1851	"	2,175,367	496,911
1850	"	2,116,744	339,801
1849	"	2,789,318	449,324
1848	"	3,338,293	384,268
1847	"	2,584,528	521,738
1846	"	2,374,484	414,417
1845	"	2,371,406	548,583
1844	"	1,960,663	508,282
1843	"	1,540,306	468,032

The receipts of rye and shorts, for the same period, have been as follows:

		Rye.	Shorts.
1852	bush.	18,751	149,474
1851	"	52,833	116,933
1850	"	50,965	48,869
1849	"	40,478	66,258
1848	"	65,189	48,988
1847	"	50,256	83,620
1846	"	17,160	96,711
1845	"	24,184	65,530
1844	"	30,352	105,025
1843	"	25,953	40,750

The receipts for wheat show a very large increase over any previous year, and were principally for the use of the flour mills in this vicinity. The following are the receipts for eight years:

1852	bush.	762,939
1851	"	405,044
1850	"	531,047
1849	"	510,671
1848	"	336,247
1847	"	171,127
1846	"	83,962
1845	"	27,524

The exports of corn and wheat for seven years past have been as follows:

	Corn, bush.	Wheat, bush.
1852	74,180	25,187
1851	94,161	8,890
1850	160,944	52
1849	325,768	524
1848	518,856	21,249
1847	568,025	14,853
1846	191,254	5,090

OILS.—The prices of linseed oil from January to August were comparatively uniform, ranging from 59 *a* 65c. for American, and 60 *a* 67c. for English, the prrncipal sales of American having been at 60 *a* 62c. per gal. Since August the price has been quite fluctuating, ranging from 60 *a* 77c. per gal. The present current rates are 67 *a* 68c. The range of prices in 1851 were 61 *a* 85c., in 1850 from 66 *a* 96c., and in 1849, from 50 *a* 90c. There is every reason to believe that prices will rule high for some months. The amount of linseed on hand and to arrive before the first of March is not sufficient to supply all our crushers, and in Great Britain the supply of seed is also known to be short. This will, no doubt, reduce the quantity of oil on the market for spring sales, and keep up a high range of prices. The quantity of linseed oil taken for consumption in this vicinity, for some years past, has been as follows:

	American.	English and Dutch.	Total.
1852, gals	475,000	440,000	915,000
1851	312,000	425,000	737,000
1850	250,000	550,000	800,000

It will be seen by the above that the amount of oil manufactured in this city has materially increased, and the article is also noted as being of very pure and superior quality. Olive oil in casks has ranged from 90c. *a* $1 12½ per gal. during the year, and lard oil from 70c. *a* $1. The following statement shows the amount of sperm and whale oil imported into the United States the past ten years:

	Sperm.	Whale.
1852, bbls	74,430	83,013
1851	99,591	328,483
1850	92,892	200,608
1849	100,944	248,492
1848	107,976	280,756
1847	120,753	313,150
1846	95,217	207,493
1845	157,917	272,730
1844	139,594	262,046
1843	166,985	206,727

LEATHER, BOOTS AND SHOES.—The receipts have been as follows:

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	Sides.	Bundles.
From New-York and Albany,	180,109	2,686
Baltimore	19,314	20,137
Philadelphia	11,648	8,064
Alexandria	—	569
Georgetown	—	128
New-Orleans	—	3,148
Mobile	—	11
Richmond	—	419
Fredericksburg	—	33
Charleston	—	10
Liverpool	210	180
London	—	89
Halifax	—	28
Western Rail-road	110,771	35,405
Fitchburg Rail-road	65,867	14,362
Northern Rail-road	9,708	7,367
Boston & Maine Rail-roads	—	791
Total 1852	397,628	93,447
1851	476,036	74,262
1850	478,868	63,676
1849	339,142	41,425
1848	582,053	25,791
1847	658,004	26,686
1846	603,730	24,346
1845	641,404	22,959

The boot and shoe trade has been unusually active, and shows a considerable increase over any previous year. Both the South and West have purchased more goods than the most sanguine in the trade expected, while a favorable reaction in the California market has called for increased shipments to that quarter. The number of buyers have, at times, been very large, particularly from the West, many of them new-comers. The stocks on hand at the commencement of the active business seasons, were quite large, but at the close of the fall trade there was a smaller stock of goods on hand than for many previous years. Our manufactures are now engaged on spring work, of which there is a fair supply in market, and the prospects of the trade are quite encouraging. Below is the quantity cleared at the custom-house for some years past. The bulk of the supplies for the West are forwarded by rail-road, and would materially increase these figures could they be obtained.

1852	cases	195,120
1851	"	153,912
1850	"	147,769
1849	"	101,371
1848	"	79,118
1847	"	72,424
1846	"	67,877
1845	"	90,782

NAVAL STORES.—The imports for three years have been as follows:

		1852.	1851.	1850.
Rosin	bbls.	36,332	37,393	22,896
Turpentine	"	22,964	21,881	23,231
Spt's. Turpentine	"	9,322	10,764	8,458
Pitch	"	355	1,976	2,123
Tar	"	22,419	14,364	19,685

The receipts of tar and turpentine for ten years have been as follows:—

		Tar.	Turpentine.
1852	bbls.	22,419	22,964
1851	"	14,364	21,881
1850	"	19,685	23,231
1849	"	24,853	37,956
1848	"	19,959	23,006
1847	"	16,228	56,729
1846	"	16,542	24,728
1845	"	16,597	40,177
1844	"	14,410	41,579
1843	"	13,535	38,042

The exports of naval stores from this port for three years past have been as follows:—

		1852.	1851.	1850.
Rosin,	bbls.	11,740	10,527	13,146
Spirits Turpentine	"	1,243	1,143	1,665
Tar	"	5,075	5,081	7,184
Pitch	"	5,509	6,241	4,863
Turpentine	"	440	43	3,008

IRON.—Scotch pig iron, from January to September last, sold from $19 *a* $21, the principal cargo sales having been from $19 *a* $20. During September and October prices rapidly advanced, owing to the small supplies expected from Great Britain and the increased consumption, and sales from vessel have been made, for some weeks past, at $30 *a* $31 per ton, the highest prices obtained for some years. In 1851 the range of prices was from $18 50 *a* $24, in 1850, from $20 *a* $23 50, and in 1849, from $21 *a* $28 per ton. The imports have been as follows:

	From Russia.	Sweden.	Great Britain.	Coastwise.
Bars	5,184	29,118	543,185	118,555
Do. tons	80	2,488	347	802
RR bars	—	—	16,457	2,165
Do. tons	—	—	3,983	887
Bundles	9,640	140	146,703	28,699
Plates	—	—	14,608	5,900
Bloom, tons	—	—	—	53
Bloom No	—	—	—	1,382
Scrap, tons	—	—	1,542	16
Pig, tons	—	—	21,566	13,090

The total receipts for three years past have been as follows:—

	1852.	1851.	1850.
Bars	696,042	691,469	775,477
Do. tons	3,717	2,804	2,144
RR bars	18,622	16,626	22,607
Do. tons	4,870	2,927	6,360
Bundles	185,191	209,752	141,004
Plates	20,508	33,876	19,938
Blooms	1,382	—	4,677
Do. tons	53	240	—
Boiler, tons	—	39	50
Scrap	1,558	2,570	1,380
Pig, tons	34,656	30,051	23,065

ICE.—The export of ice, as cleared at the custom-house the past year, has been as follows:

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	Tons.
To East Indies	11,207
London	450
Liverpool	1,252
San Francisco	2,232
Central America	2,702
Panama	477
Sydney, Australia	366
Navy Bay	226
Cadiz	198
Rio Janeiro	2,477½
Chagres and a market	113
Kingston, Ja	1,126
Demarara	827
Barbadoes	653
Pernambuco	466
Guadaloupe	387
Porto Rico	741
Porto Cabello	88
St. Thomas	1,061
Martinique	830
Havana	5,261
Matanzas	925
St. Jago	450
Nassau	361½
St. Vincent's	319
Trinidad, P. S	853
Bermuda	65
Southern ports	60,368
Total 1852 tons	96,482
" 1851 "	99,578
" 1850 "	69,023
" 1849 "	66,308
" 1848 "	57,507
" 1847 "	54,625
" 1846 "	57,293
" 1845 "	48,422

HIDES.—The imports have been as follows:

	Bales.	Number.
B. Ayres and Rio Grande	"	141,680
Valparaiso & Central America	"	21,498
Bahia	"	10,092
Truxillo	"	10,946
Cape of Good Hope	"	7,010
Other foreign ports	"	88,747
Coastwise ports	"	198,515
Calcutta	3,485 —	—
Manilla	200 —	—
Total—1852	3,685	479,288
" 1851	3,790	616,563
" 1850	2,698	592,137
" 1849	2,477	572,076
" 1848	4,738	459,507
" 1847	1,902	472,962
" 1846	2,757	342,310
" 1845	2,982	411,057
" 1844	3,298	507,986
" 1843	2,943	310,807
" 1842	4,235	340,235
" 1841	936	432,481
" 1840	3,552	205,909

The import of goat skins the past six years has been as follows:

	Bales.	Number.
1852	4,432	107,853
1851	6,768	73,115
1850	4,636	48,969
1849	5,757	33,255
1848	7,356	41,905
1847	4,788	38,455

ART. IX.—BRITISH PHILANTHROPY AND AMERICAN SLAVERY.*

AN AFFECTIONATE RESPONSE TO THE LADIES OF ENGLAND, ETC., FROM THE LADIES OF THE SOUTHERN UNITED STATES; TOGETHER WITH SOME REMARKS FOR THE NORTH BRITISH REVIEW.—BY A SOUTHERN LADY.

[WE recommend this spirited and able paper, from the pen of a Southern Lady, to the attention of our readers on both sides of the Atlantic. The author, though known to fame, prefers the discharge of domestic duties to the noisy applause of the world. Her protest against the miscalled "Woman's Rights" movement at the North, which we published in our September number of last year, asserted and maintained the dignity, the elevation, the beauty of female character in its relation to that of the male, in the present constitution of society, and without any resort to Amazonian conventions.]

Fire! fire! fire! bawled, one day, an officious neighbor, as he pointed to the heavy smoke, whose black volumes rose somewhat threateningly from an adjacent chimney. "Fire! fire! fire!" Street boys soon echoed the cry. Town-bells rang. Rattling on rushed the engines. "Fire! fire! fire!" There stood the officious neighbor, watching the smoke, and rather in hopes that the greedy flame might start up at last to prove him a true prophet. "Fire! fire! fire!" The cry continues, though he vainly strains his eyes to catch a glimpse of the red flash. "Fire! fire! fire!"—The flash, the noise, the crash is behind him. While he, poor meddling fool! is watching for it in his neighbor's house, his own is blazing.

Most noble and honorable ladies! most sapient and learned reviewers! fortunate would it be for your own sakes and ours, could you but fix your eyes upon the stifling smoke issuing from

*1. North British Review, Nov. 1852. Article—"American Slavery and Uncle Tom's Cabin." 2. The affectionate and Christian address of many thousands of the women of England to their sisters, the women of the United States of America.

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your own homes, instead of keeping them busy with your spy-glasses in watching *our* motions across the Atlantic. These spy-glass reports, by-the-way, play wild work sometimes. We have lately had a droll explanation from a learned professor,* of a report concerning certain views of the inhabitants of the moon. It seems that the learned gentleman, while indulging a pretty young lady with a peep at that luminary through his telescope, chanced to mention in conversation with a bystander, that in casting his telescopic sight over the surrounding sublunary landscape, he had once chanced to bring into the view a washerwoman at her tub, whose evolutions had much amused him. The wonder-loving young lady understood this remark to refer to the moon, and forthwith behold in circulation a perfectly well-authenticated story of washer-women in the moon, and for aught we know to the contrary, the world might have been soon agog for the improvement of the condition of these ladies, and some philanthropic society would have imagined a method for sending them the last invention in washing-kettles, if unfortunately the learned professor had not spoiled the wonder by revealing the truth. Ladies and reviewers, may it not be worth inquiring whether the "Uncle Tom" view of your transatlantic brethren be not as wide of the truth as this young lady's lunar washerwomen? Let us advise you to cast aside your "Uncle Tom" spy-glasses. Look with your own eyes; hear with your own ears, and do not too easily credit stories about washerwomen in the moon.

Fire! fire! fire!—When the cry is in your ears, look at your own house first. Perchance you may see the sorrow and the anguish there. Perchance you may see the black smoke of suffering steaming forth from the sweltering sacrifice of broken hearts within your own soil! Hangs it not over you, that great sorrow-cloud,—thick, dark, dense,—even as the fog of your own great London, casting its gloom over pomp and palaces? Sin and sorrow are the badge of mortality; and, gentle ladies, believe us, if you would act the good Samaritan, you will find your sick and your wounded, even as you pass along by your own road side. For heaven's pity, then, crush not beneath your chariot wheels, in a wild chase after phantasmagoric evils, those whom God has given you to relieve. You trample over real flesh and blood, while you gaze weepingly toward the painted pictures of a magic lantern.

Evils there are, alas! God knows, strewn thick enough through our world; and prophets too there are, whose God-inspired genius may sometimes help to guide us through the labyrinth, and point a ray of hope, shining midst the darkness. But, fair ladies, they are not such as you who can grapple with God's mysteries. Nor, learned reviewers, are ye yet learned enough for the holy task. Your conventions and your appeals,—your Uncle Tom corollaries and Wilberforcian apings, are but the filthy scum which, forcing itself uppermost, hides the deep truth beneath. There is evil in God's blessed world (why, God only knows), but there is also good,—deep, earnest good,—for those who will seek it deeply and earnestly. Below the nauseous froth-scum of sickly philanthropy and new-light Christianity, runs, quiet but clear, the pure stream of God-given reason and common-sense humanity. Ladies and reviewers, *God* is *God*, but *ye* are *not* his prophets. Deeply must the heart have felt, deeply must the brain have thought, laboriously must its problem be worked out by the giant mind whose destiny it is to turn the fate of nations. Who are these who now start up with gibbering, mopping, and wringing of hands, to guide the peoples of the earth to righteousness, and to dictate to the consciences of nations? What know the Dutchess of Sutherland, Bedford, or Argyle,—what knows the Countess of Shaftesbury or the Viscountess Palmerston, or any Honble. Lady A. B. or C., of all who thought fit to convene at Stafford-house for the benefit and instruction of the benighted of this land,—what know any of these of the workings of great political systems? What know they of American slavery? They have read "Uncle Tom's Cabin" forsooth, and they have seen that the authoress thereof vouches for the accuracy of her facts, even as did the veracious Baron Munchausen for his. They have read "Uncle Tom's Cabin," and without further question they take it for their gospel, and Mrs. Stowe for

* Professor Olmsted, of Yale College.

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their Messiah; and, with the zeal of new converts, start a crusade to the land where their Peter the Hermit (the Hon. the Earl of Shaftesbury) points them. With hallelujahs to liberty, and dolorous laments over negro bondage, they commence the attack, not in person, with the cross of suffering upon their shoulders, but comfortably lolling upon their sofas, they issue their appeals to their sinning sisters of this sinful land with most pharasaical humility. "Lord, we thank thee that we are not like unto these!"

"Fire! fire! fire!" Most loving sisters, be not too much startled by the cry, but retain, if possible, your gentle sympathies and nervous terrors sufficiently within bounds, to enable you to look with the necessary presence of mind to your own premises. Fire! fire! fire! This stifling sorrow-smoke, still slowly rising always as though in solemn appeal to the God of Heaven against heart-breaking, body-crushing agony; this constant dumb prayer of remediless suffering, whence is it? Is it only from our sugar fields and cotton plantations? Is it the negro alone whose weary shoulders bend beneath their load? England is a proud country—a great country—a noble and a glorious country; but, proud Pharisee, beware! you may fast twice in the week, you may give tithes of all you possess, and yet you may find, even in happy England, most stringent duties that you leave unfulfilled. The suppliant at your own door is forgotten, while you weep over the unredressed wrongs of foreign lands. Were it not better, gentle ladies, to nurse your own sick, to feed your own hungry, and to trust to the instincts of woman's heart in her own land, to relieve her own weary and her own suffering. Can it be that midst the millions of America, Mrs. Stowe's is the only true woman's heart which has dared to remonstrate against such scenes of horror as you suppose to exist among us. Belie not thus your sex, noble ladies. If duchesses and countesses can sufficiently descend from their high rank to feel like ordinary women, with every-day hearts, and every-day woman sympathies, will they not blush to think what a slander their "affectionate and Christian address" casts upon so large a portion of their civilized sisterhood? Ladies of Stafford-house, believe us, you have not the monopoly of woman-feelings, and were the evil of our institutions so "*enormous*," and prevailing with "*such frightful results*" as you suppose, long ere this would we women of the Southern United States, "*as sisters, as wives, and as mothers*," have raised "*our voices to our fellow-citizens and our prayers to God for the removal of this affliction from the Christian world.*" Believe us, ladies, we have not waited for your appeal "*to ask council of God how far such a state of things is in accordance with His holy word, the inalienable rights of immortal souls, and the pure and merciful spirit of the Christian religion.*" We can think as women, and feel as women, and act as women, without waiting for the promptings of your appeals, or of Mrs. Stowe's imaginative horrors. It seems to us, that you should receive it as a strong proof of how much you have mistaken our system, that so many millions of women—mothers, sisters, and daughters, loving and beloved, civilized women, Christian women, have contentedly lived in the midst of it, and yet the common woman-heart among us has not risen up to call it *cursed*. Are ye women and mothers, and yet believe that these millions of women and mothers, bearing their babes upon their breasts, could teach their own beloved ones, even with their earliest breath, a constant lie? That for the paltry dollar's sake, we would bid them suck in falsehood with their mother's milk and teach them to barter their consciences for money? Nay, if ye have not, in the luxuries of rank, ceased to know the mother's love for her nurseling, and the pure welling forth of a mother's hope for the child of her bosom—rather will ye suppose that we will tip those breasts with arsenic, and drug their milk with hemlock. However exceptional cases may shock the world, never did a nation of women systematically rear their sons to be villains. Yet such, and no less, is the charge conveyed against us in your "affectionate and Christian appeal." If we have tolerated the system of iniquity that you describe, if we have taught our children to love it, if we are willing to bid them defend it, even unto blood should it be necessary, as man should defend the dearest rights of his hearth and home, what are we? The heathen kneeling to his

> "Moloch, horrid king, besmeared with blood
> Of human sacrifice."

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and offering his child upon the altar of "his grim idol," has, at least, the excuse of ignorance and superstition for his brutal worship. Not so we. Knowingly and with open eyes, without one twinge of conscience, one *mea culpa*, we fling the offspring of our own flesh and blood into this seething abyss of abominations. This is in fact, unless we advance the plea of a general national imbecility, the crime of which we are guilty, if there is any foundation for the universal jeremiades which it is now the fashion to wail over negro slavery. It is useless for us to tell the benevolent ladies and gentlemen who have undertaken to instruct us in our catechism of humanity, that they have quite mistaken our case and are entirely ignorant of the condition of the negro. Uncle Tom's Cabin tells them differently. It is useless for us to tell them that our slaves are not interdicted "education in the truths of the gospel and the ordinances of Christianity;" it is useless for us to repeat that their family ties and social affections are respected and indulged in a greater degree than those of any laboring class in the world. "Uncle Tom's Cabin" says differently; and the negrophilists have very nearly reached the point of pronouncing sentence of excommunication, on the ground of infidelity, against all who dispute the authenticity of so high an authority. It is useless for us to point to the comparative census of the divers nations of the earth; it is useless for us to show that in none are the tables of crime, of deformity and insanity so low as in our slave population. Mrs. Stowe and Uncle Tom! Mrs. Stowe and Uncle Tom! Mrs. Stowe and Uncle Tom! ding, ding, dong. What is the use of reasoning? what is the use of facts, when those who should hear us, deafen themselves with this eternal "ding, dong" of superstitious prejudice and pharasaical cant? As regards the condition of our slaves, compared with that of the white population of our own free states (than which, avowedly, no population in the world enjoys higher advantages), ten minutes' investigation of our late census returns, with about so much arithmetical knowledge as any boy of ten years old can command, will suffice to show that, for every insane slave, there are from eight to nine insane whites; and that this is not an exception resulting from any physical peculiarity of the negro, is proved by the fact that among the *free* blacks the proportion of insane is, within a very small fraction, equal to that among the whites. This fact alone speaks volumes. The numbers of deaf mutes and of blind, although the disproportion is not so great, shows largely in favor of the slave, and are worth dwelling upon as indicating the comforts of his position; but, would men consent to open their eyes and hearts to the truth, volumes of argument and cart-loads of Uncle Tom's Cabins would not weigh a feather against the indisputable fact which we have just noted of the disparity in the numbers of the insane presented in the different positions referred to. Will the ladies of Stafford-house favor us with some corresponding facts among their manufactering and mining populations? They cannot. They dare not. The statistics of the poor are a fearful study. Duchesses and countesses can only read of them in novels, and weep over them when well draperied in romance.

But our brethren of the reviews, hard-handed and hard-headed folks as they are, venture sometimes deeper, and we are accordingly a little amused, and not a little instructed by an article in the "North British," which happens, by accident we presume, (though the close juxtaposition looks almost like a mischievous design on the part of somebody,) to have its place immediately following the one with which we have headed our remarks. We are amused by the contrast between the two articles. Here stands "American slavery and Uncle Tom's Cabin," treated of with all the gall and prejudice which the subject always seems to awake in those who ignorantly meddle with it; and immediately annexed is "The Modern Exodus, in its effects on the British Islands," wherein the sufferings leading to this Exodus (as the enormous emigration from the British islands is aptly termed) are treated of with a philosophic insight, a coolness of argument, and an apparent careful investigation of fact, which present a strange contrast to the sentimental slang, the careless assertion, and broad misstatements of the negrophilist article. The two together put us strangely in mind of the often-quoted joke of the reverend wit: "Orthodoxy is my doxy, and heterodoxy is your doxy." In the article on the "Exodus," it is acknow-

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ledged of the laborers of certain districts of England (Dorsetshire and Devonshire) that they are "permanently wretched." "In Buckinghamshire and Bedfordshire* wages are seldom such as adequately to support life;" and as a whole it is "indisputable that the usual earnings of the rural day-laborer are not sufficient to provide his family with food, clothing and habitation, of fitting kind and quantity." Of artisans, the reviewer states that the hand-loom weavers of Lancashire, Paisley, and Spitalfields are either always or periodically in distress. "Their toil is so incessant and severe, as to leave no time nor wish for anything but sleep, and to render their life an alarming approximation to that of the brutes that perish." Of distressed work-people of large towns, needle-women, &c., he says:—"These classes are said to number thousands in the metropolis alone; and their sufferings and privations are such as can scarcely be credited in a civilized and Christian country. Nor, whatever may be our opinion as to the causes of their wretchedness, or the undue coloring thrown over it, can we refuse to believe in the general fact of its existence." Let our readers remember that we are not quoting from a novel. The writer has no wish to make up a picture. There is no call for the sympathies of readers; no necessity for embellishment. Simple facts are stated in the simplest manner, and that, not of mis-governed colonists, or degraded Irish, but of the laboring classes of great and happy England. Such as these naturally emigrate largely. Let us turn now to Ireland and guess what must be her condition, even had we no other data from which to argue, when we find that her emigration considerably more than doubles that of the whole of England and Scotland combined. Of 335,966, who left the United Kingdom in 1851, it is stated that 257,372 were Irish. If the emigration is proportioned to the suffering, what is the condition of Ireland? "By the combined effect of emigration and famine (says the reviewer) the population of Ireland was reduced from 8,175,124 in 1841, to 6,515,794, in 1851." In 1851 the number of Irish emigrants had risen to 257,000; and in the first six months of 1852 already 125,000 had gone. "Ireland is being depopulated at the rate of *a quarter of a million* per annum, a process which, if continued, will empty her entirely in the course of *twenty-four years*." So much for the happiness of the subjects of Britain. God knows, not in triumph but in self-defence do we dwell upon such facts. We are accused of supporting a system heinous beyond comparison, oppressive beyond conception. What defence have we farther than to show (while we acknowledge suffering and oppression under every system) that ours is certainly not the worst? Let England, if it be possible, cure this, her own heart-disease, before prescribing for others. If it be *impossible*, let her bow to the mystery of God and patiently work out her destiny, leaving us to accomplish ours.

The reviewer of the "Exodus" goes on to remark with regard to Ireland that not only is it necessary "to remove redundant numbers, but to replace them by a more energetic, more aspiring and more improvable race. The poor Celts must be pushed out, or starved out, to make place for more improvable Saxons: and why? Because their nature requires them to be "controlled, disciplined, and guided by others. Left to their own devices, a prey to their own indolent, slovenly, and improvident tendencies, all history shows how helpless and prone to degenerate they are." They are "deficient also in that faculty of self-government and self-control in the absence of which free institutions can never flourish or be permanently maintained." The poor Celt, then, must be unhoused, turned forth upon the world to work, beg, steal or die, it matters little; for the powerful and "improvable Saxon" needs his land. He is incapable of self-government; *ergo*, he must be governed. Or, (the governing power being deficient,) he must even make himself scarce in just such proportion as will establish the equilibrium between the *minus* and the *plus* quantities. He must emigrate or die, according to circumstances. The world must progress and his place is wanted. There is no longer room for him. Let him vanish! Amen! Is this wrong? We dare not say so. It seems rather a hard necessity than a wrong. The inferior people always have, always must, it

* Her Grace the Duchess of Bedford, it would appear, might find something at home to occupy her special charity. She is second in the lists for the American Crusade.

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would appear, pass away before the wants of the superior, and the necessities of progress. "Begone, ye incompetent!" is surely the stern law of man's existence. Begone, from your land, from your home—ay, if it be necessary, from your life! The short spasm of a being, or of millions of beings, counts low in these calculations. We shudder at the thought, and yet, we repeat, we dare not call it a wrong. A necessity is never a wrong. A necessity of God's making—is it not a right? From such a dilemma where is the escape? Heaven only knows, and to its high mystery we bow.

Our brethren of England see and feel the necessity of this iron logic when the evil comes home to them; but find a quite different philosophy, when the question is of their neighbors. While their Irish slave is turned shivering and houseless forth upon the bleak, cold world, their sentimentalists, as though in compensation for the philosophic coolness of this veritable edict for the extinction of a nation, weep floods of sympathy for the oppressed negro!—the negro, whose happy lot of ease and plenty would, to the wretched of their land, present an almost Elysian bliss. What would they have us do? Even allowing that the condition of the negro were such as they represent, how would they better it? The negro surely is not a superior man to their outcast Celt. If the Irishman be incapable of self-government and self-control; if his indolent, slovenly and improvident tendencies, need the control, discipline, and guidance of others, who that has the slightest knowledge of the negro character, will deny that these difficulties present themselves in him in a tenfold *ratio!* Our reviewer finds his only hope for the Irish in a scattering of them among the other nations of the earth. "Wherever they settle singly among Americans or British, they improve, advance, and civilize; wherever they *congregate*, so as to carry Ireland about with them, they continue what we see them at home." This adherence to the peculiarities of race is of course not singular to the Irish. The negro, too, has *his* peculiarities, which are kept in abeyance by his association with, and subjection to the white man. Check that association and subjection, and how rapidly do we see him falling back to *fetishe* and barbarism! Wherever the Irish *congregate*, they carry Ireland about with them, for the simple reason that the peculiarities of one race can only be washed out by the commingled blood of others. The negro, under similar circumstances, brings to us, then, all the dark horrors of Negro-land, and not many decades will elapse ere the imperial Soulouque will (unless the rapid downward progress of himself and his nation be arrested by the mastery of the white sovereigns who are now closing round him) present to us some pretty scenes of negrodom of the fashion perhaps of that which we are told the grandees of Dahomy recently treated her majesty's commissioners;—*une jolie fête!* a pretty pastime!—consisting of the hunting down and roasting of a few of their free and happy negro brethren made prisoners among the neighboring nations.

What then is to be done with the negro? The Irish, to prevent this formation of little Irelands all over the world, are very judiciously advised to scatter themselves, and thus, by a proper distribution of their peculiar traits, the Irish blood, as a kind of salt to the earth, distributes itself not uselessly through the civilized world. Will our reviewer maintain that the same course is practicable,—conceivable even,—with regard to the negro? Can the ladies of Stafford-house coolly contemplate the feasibility of such an unraveling of this Gordian knot? Will their admiration for Mrs. Stowe not stop short of amalgamation? We answer for them boldly. We do them more justice than they have done to us. As Christian and civilized women, they shrink with horror from the idea. What then, we repeat, can be done with the negro? Amalgamation cannot be thought of. Barbarism then—cannibal barbarism—slavery or extinction is his fate. Will our self-constituted teachers in the A, B, C, of humanity, have the goodness to inform us which of these alternatives they would advise as a first experiment?—Even were the condition of the negro with us such as the wailings of negrophilists have described it, however much it might need a remedy, that remedy would never be found in emancipation. Jamaica shows what, under the best auspices, is the rapid tendency of this people, when set free from control. It will not need a century more to convince England that Jamaica, but for her greater distance and thus more convenient

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facility for being shaken off, would be a worse sore upon her system than ever Ireland has been. If the one be the disgusting boil, which stains and soils with its constantly emitted pus, the other (unless Coolie emigration and common sense puts the negro back into his natural position, or, as is likeliest, drive him from existence) will prove the black and incurable gangrene to be got rid of only by speedy amputation. Supposing then slavery to be even such as it has been described, what escape is there for the negro? Literally none. If there be upon him a curse (which we are not inclined to allow), the curse is of God's laying on—not of ours. But, we repeat, we believe it not a curse. Inferiority is not a curse. Every creature is suited for its position, and fulfilling that position can certainly not be called cursed. What God has made, dare we to call it cursed? No, ladies. As He has made you to be women and not men—mothers and sisters, and not (according to the modern improvement system), soldiers and legislators, so has He fitted the negro for his position and suited him to be happy and useful in it. The negro's civilization,—his only civilization,—is slavery, serfdom,—call it what you will, the condition and not the epithet is the point in question. Were the disease of our system such as you, ladies, and others, have, we believe, in thoughtlessness rather than in malice described it, your rose-water appeals, as a contemporary editor well calls them, could have but slight effect; a sticking-plaster to a cloven skull, a pack-thread to guide an elephant, would be equally efficient.

But, our decriers have, we now go on to maintain, entirely mistaken our case. They have trusted to Mrs. Stowe's spectacles, whose strange power of distortion shows everything under a false view. The "North British" expatiates upon the power of pathos and other admirable qualities of this authoress, and cheers her on to the work, recalling the fact that it was "a woman, Elizabeth Heyrick, who wrote the pamphlet that moved the heart of Wilberforce to pity and to pray over the wrongs of the oppressed sons of Africa." We can only say that if so, Elizabeth Heyrick was almost as mischievous a woman in her day, as Mrs. Stowe now threatens to be; for those tears of Wilberforce have caused more shedding of blood, more anguish of soul, more agony of body and of mind, than it often falls to the lot of one man to give scope to. He attacked crime, not with the philosophic coolness which examines, compares, probes causes and effects, and thus has at least the fairest chance for cure;—but with a species of feminine pathetics and wailings, caught perhaps from Mrs. Heyrick, he set the example, and opened that sluice of sickly sentimentality which too often, taking the place of sound sense and argument, now inundates the world, causing agonies of body and soul, to which the worst scenes of the slave trade, heinous as they were, stand but as dust in the balance. The tears of blind enthusiasm are oftenest paid for, more than drop for drop, in blood. Wilberforce was, we believe, a good man, so far as *intentions* go; but a more mischievous man in *deeds* has seldom existed. The maniac may be pardoned for his follies, but it is hard to call upon the world to kneel and worship him. To Mrs. Stowe it is difficult to extend the same charity. We rejoice to believe, from sundry indications, that the mania of Uncle Tomism has nearly run its course; but it is a fearful sign of the times that such a truckling, money-seeking speculation—such a Judas-like sale of truth and conscience—should even for the short space of a few weeks or a few months, have raised its author to the position of a heroine and prophetess. The sudden accession of philanthropic *furor* which has been waked up in the cause of negrodom, catches its flame from an altar lit up by no fire from heaven; its prophetess no sibyl,—but rather some fortune-seeking gipsy, who, her hand once crossed with gold, laughs at the simple fool who credits her tales, while she pockets the reward of her falsehood.

The "North British" remarks, "among all the tributes to this appeal of Mrs. Stowe to every human feeling and every Christian principle, there is, perhaps, no greater tribute to its power than the kind and multitude of *answers* that have issued, and are issuing from the upholders and abettors of the slave-system of whose horrors this *tremendous revelation* has been made. We have said that the power of the book lies in its truth, directed to the consciences of men,—and, accordingly, we find that

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the consciences of men are dealing with it, as truth. And, perhaps, it is in its being an appeal to conscience, and in its being responded to as such, that the book stands out from the class to which it nominally belongs. When did an army of journalists, and novelists, and pamphleteers—in fact, all the legal organs of society—ever before so set themselves in battle array to contend against the truth of a so-called work of fiction?" "The fact is that Mrs. Stowe has told the truth fearlessly; and therefore is she not only answered, but answered wrathfully; and should these answers not teach us to doubt her statements, they will, at least, teach us to estimate the degree of moral courage, the power of Christian principle required to enable her to speak the truth in America."

In the days of witchcraft, among other ordeals, one, which was, we are told, much used, consisted in casting the accused, bound hand and foot, into the water. Should the unfortunate being sink, a quiet death was his (or oftenest her) best fate. Should the unstruggling wretch float, no farther proof of crime was necessary, and pricking to death, or burning, or torturing in any and every imaginable way, was the certain result. We are placed, it would appear, in a somewhat similar position to that of the accused witch. Here is a "*tremendous revelation*" stated to have appeared against us. If we are silent, we acknowledge the sin and our accusers proceed accordingly. If we speak in exculpation, it proves that we feel the "appeal to conscience," and shrink before the prick. And if, unfortunately, the slightest impatience, the slightest warmth of expression, enters into our defence, behold! it is proof positive and indisputable! The devil's mark upon us. The poor witch is condemned while the righteous accuser pockets at once the honor and the profits of our conviction. We should like to summon before us in bodily entity, the intangible existence shrouded under the reviewer's "We," and ask him, as a *man*, whether, on receiving a slap on the face, or a tweak of the nose, the involuntary impulse which moves his arm to knock down the aggressor be a proof of his deserving said slap, or said tweak? Or whether, when some insolent puppy gives him the lie, it be a verification of the charge, that the indignant motion of the flexor and extensor muscles of his leg, gives the assailant a somewhat angry response to the remark? It is false, too, to say that *all* this indignation is excited by a *so-called work of fiction*, if by this it is intended to say an *acknowledged* work of fiction. Mrs. Stowe expressly states, both in her work and out of it, that it is a representation of *fact*. The reviewer himself calls it a "*tremendous revelation*." "Mrs. Stowe has told the truth fearlessly," &c., &c. Are we then, in combating her assertions, combating a *so-called* fiction, or a *so-called* fact? The world of Europe has chosen to take on trust, because it strikes in with the sentimental whim of the day, the account of a woman, every page of whose book shows that she has seen little, and knows nothing of our institutions. Still she calls them fact, and Europe takes them as fact. What more natural than that we should attempt to check the progress of the slander, by declaring its falsity. A little further on, the reviewer quotes what he calls "the heart words of this true-hearted woman." She writes of her book: "There has been hardly a day since it has been published that confirmatory voices have not come from southern slaveholders; men who have long waited for an opportunity to speak, and who now come out to attest its truth,—for alas! they know what I know, and they must perceive that I know it, that the half is not told in that book. A book that should tell all, would not be credited,—*it could not be read*. . . . . I have only wondered some moments, in the anguish of the survey, that the firm earth does not collapse to hide such horror from the sun!"

This, certainly, from the sound, indicates something horrible! most horrible! and considering the prevalence of cholera there is something peculiarly alarming in the idea of threatened collapse of the firm earth which should come to visit our sins; particularly as the lady tells us that she has so many confirmatory voices to bear witness to the iniquities of our land. Now, to assuage the terrors of our reviewer and others, who, in case of our old mother earth being "taken so bad," might, as well as ourselves, suffer in the catastrophe, we must inform them, that Mrs. Stowe's published letters have not always had that regard for veracity

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which would be desirable in so distinguished a lady. We have not room here for the details of a correspondence, threatened suit, &c., &c., with and about the Rev. Dr. Parker, who happened to be brought in by name as a "confirmatory voice" by the lady, and who, not submitting quietly to the charge, forced an investigation and confession, which proved the publication, by Mrs. Stowe, of sundry letters which had in fact never been sent, received, nor even written, by the persons from whom they purported to have come. In short, they were utterly false; and what would, in the usual language of the world (whatever milder term Mrs. Stowe and her coadjutors might make use of), be called forged letters. The lady has, we believe, been more careful since this transaction, and following the safer plan of not naming names, speaks indefinitely of "confirmatory voices," which, like "those airy tongues which syllable men's names," are too intangible to be brought in witness against her, or to threaten suit for $40,000. We presume that the reviewer is ignorant of her ability in composing facts, and thus takes without dispute those which he quotes from her letter. "*The heart-words of this true-hearted woman!*" So goes the world! We will not wish for a "collapse of the firm earth" to swallow up our fair foe, but truly we would counsel her, as she is fond of quoting scripture, to study a little the decalogue. Perchance she may there come across an old law which seems to have slipped her memory: "Thou shalt not bear false witness against thy neighbor."

A propos of misstating facts,—the reviewer himself, misled by somebody not more accurate than Mrs. Stowe, falls into some strange blunders. "What is the meaning," (he asks, in the midst of sundry quotations, showing what he supposes the condition of our negroes under "the hideous social malady" under which we labor,) "what is the meaning of that law of South Carolina, declaring death to be the punishment not only of the runaway slave, but of any person who shall choose to aid him in his escape? or of that of Louisiana, declaring it lawful to fire upon any slaves who do not stop when pursued?" &c., &c.

We will quote no further. Wishing to dispose first of these two clauses, we honestly looked for the authorities to these statements, and find in a note, as reference for the first clause, "Brevard's Digest, vol. ii., p. 236." We turn to book, volume and page. The gentleman must have been reading with Mrs. Stowe's spectacles; there is nothing in any way resembling the quotation referred to. For the second clause, the reference is (also in a note) "Brevard's Digest of the Laws of Louisiana, Code Noir, vol. i., p. 33." Here, we are quite at a stand—"*Brevard's Digest of the Laws of Louisiana*," being a volume entirely unknown to American lawyers. There is not, and never has been, any such work; Brevard's Digest including only the laws of South Carolina. How are such wantonly false assertions to be met? We are not well enough versed in the laws of Louisiana to say what shadow of foundation the reviewer may find in them for his quotation from his imaginary law-book.* Those of South Carolina we have at hand, and have carefully examined all of them which relate to slaves. In Brevard's Digest, vol. ii., p. 245, we find, among our colonial laws, passed A. D. 1754, the following:

"All, and every person and persons, who shall inveigle, steal, or carry away any negro, or other slave or slaves; or shall hire, aid, or counsel any person or persons to inveigle, steal, or carry away, as aforesaid, any such slave, so as the owner or employer of such slave or slaves shall be deprived of the use and benefit of such slave or slaves; or that

* So far as the reference is to the *Code Noir* of Louisiana, it is also false. No such privilege is recorded in any of the sections of the code. That code was made in 1724 by Bienville, and, with many harsh features, has some that are in the highest degree liberal and indulgent. Among them are (xi.) "Masters shall have their Christian slaves buried in consecrated ground." (xliii.) Husbands and wives shall not be seized and sold separately when belonging to the same master; and their children, under fourteen years, shall not be separated from their parents. This article shall apply to *voluntary* sales." (xxxii.) This is the only section that seems to justify the charge of the reviewer, as it makes the crime of "running away" punishable with death, but then it must be the third offence—must be continuous—must have been denounced by public authority, and the punishment must be by the constituted authorities. British statutes have made the offence of breaking prison and escape a felony, without clergy, even where the party is innocent of the original offence charged. The *Code Noir*, however, has not been in force in Louisiana since 1806. By the law of 1806, Bullard & Curry, vol. i. (sec. xxxii.), the runaway slave may be killed "should the said slave *assault and strike* the person pursuing;" a very different case from that of the North British! (xxxv.) "It shall be lawful to fire upon *runaway slaves who may be armed*." Xxxix. gives magistrates the right to fine for improper pro-

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shall aid any such slave in running away or departing from his master's or employer's service, shall be, and he and they is, and are, hereby declared to be guilty of felony, and being thereof convicted or attainted by verdict or confession; or being indicted thereof, shall stand mute; or will not directly answer to the endictment; or will peremptorily challenge above the number of the jury, shall suffer death as felons, and be excluded and debarred of the benefit of clergy."

Here is certainly a law stern enough, but not against the slave. Here is punishment for the tempter, but none for the tempted. The punishment for the runaway slave is *never*, and has never been, death. In the act of actual resistance, he is certainly liable to receive death, as is any fugitive from law while resisting constituted authorities,—but there is not, and never has been, any law making the act of evasion a crime. The act just quoted against the person inveigling a slave is an old English law, and a strong disposition has existed on the part of the State of South Carolina to repeal it, as too severe for the offence. The action of the state has in this been only checked by abuse and mischievous interference with her legislation. In our own opinion, however, it is an act which, for the *safety and comfort of the slave*, should be kept in force. The object of it is to guard *him* from the attempts of evil-disposed persons, who, either with a view of gain, would abstract the slave and afterwards dispose of him to their own profit, or else maliciously inveigle him from the protection and direction of his master. In either case, in justice to the slave, and to secure him, as much as possible, from such attempts, the tempter should receive condign punishment. We believe the general opinion is against us, but, as the *friend of the slave*, we would desire to continue the act in force. It is our duty, as far as possible, to protect our slave from all such acts of oppression, injustice, or interference, as his position makes him peculiarly liable to. Therefore, as the guiding and directing power, taking upon ourselves the responsibility in so far as we take the direction of his action, we should save him so far as in our power lies from the snares of the tempter. Our reviewer gives sundry quotations (or at least purporting to be such) from the laws of other states, all more or less ferocious, and which, not having a general law-library at hand, it is impossible for us either to confirm or refute; but we certainly have a right to conclude, in a series of assertions, that when the first two are so utterly false as we have proved the above to be, there is little faith to be attached to any of them.

The sweeping assertion so constantly made that our laws are, in their general bearing, cruel or neglectful of the slave is entirely unfounded. The truth is, that our laws are most carefully protective of the slave. Our reviewer quotes from a nameless correspondent, "a Barbadian by birth, who has himself owned slaves," to the following effect:

"The picture of American slavery, in Uncle Tom, is not the less faithful, because a stranger, visiting the country sees so little of it; and because the *general* conduct of slave-owners may be humane. The worst cases no one sees. Slavery was mitigated in our West Indian colonies by the small size of the islands and the check of public opinion, which reaches every corner. But in the remote districts of America, and even of Jamaica, what may and must have taken place when every master was a law to himself?"

This reasoning is funny enough. What is the amount of it? When a man gets out of the reach of legal authority, in *remote districts*, where neither law nor public opinion can reach him, it is possible for him to commit crimes, for which, were he within the grasp of the law, he would be punished. *Therefore* the laws are bad. *The worst cases no one sees!* (how the gentleman finds out their ex

vision for slaves by their masters, and to seize property of the offender for the purpose. XVI. imposes death upon all persons wilfully killing a slave, and heavy fine for unusual and immoderate punishment of slaves. In the consolidated statutes of Louisiana, 1852, art. *Slaves*, we see (p. 523) that disabled, or old slaves, shall be provided for by their masters. "It shall be the duty of masters to procure sick slaves all spiritual and temporal assistance." Old slaves shall not be sold from their children. Children under ten shall not be separated from their parents, etc., etc. (p. 543.) Evidence of slaves may be received on the trial of slaves. In the Louisiana Gazette, as far back as 1806, now before us, there is an advertisement of a slave to be sold by public authority, in consequence of her being ill-treated and not properly provided for by her present master. But the whole spirit of the slave system of Louisiana is mild and equitable.—EDITOR.

SHERIFF'S SALE.—Will be sold at the Principal, on Thursday, 5th September, 1805, a negro wench, named Mary, belonging to Mr. De Lavine, in consequence of the maltreatment of her master.

By order of the Judge of the County Court of Orleans. GEO. T. ROSS, Sheriff.

August 13th, 1805.

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istence it is hard to determine, but let us see his corollary,) *therefore* the system is heinous which does not punish them. *The general conduct* of slave-owners is, it is acknowledged, humane—but, as it is possible that there may be some very wicked individuals in some very remote districts, where "*the master is a law to himself*," *therefore* the laws which endeavor to take such master under their cognizance are heinous and infamous. The *facts* in the gentleman's letter are entirely laudatory of our system. For the *imaginary horrors*, not we, but himself, must be answerable. Those crimes that *no one sees*, enjoy, unfortunately, all the world over, impunity from punishment. Would the reviewer and his Barbadian friend invent a remedy for this evil, they would certainly immortalize themselves. Let us imagine such a style of reasoning applied to any system but our own, and where is the egregious fool to receive it? Nothing goes farther to prove the ignorant vehemence of our accusers than such blind argument. The reviewer then goes on to cite from "the disgusting details of facts taken from legal documents;" "information sworn before the House of Commons, on occasion of the inquiry into the state of the West Indian Colonies." We might easily plead here that West Indian slavery is not our slavery, and that the laws of England, not ours, were answerable for the atrocities there described. But we will be more just to human nature. These *facts* are generally as false as those imputed to the working of the system with us. The statements there adduced bear upon their face the impress of irrationality—many of them are *physically* impossible, and, for the rest, it is *morally* impossible that any people should so combine the traits of civilization and brutal barbarism. One or the other must necessarily be put down. A people is civilized or barbarous. In the transition state of semi-civilization they may be neither entirely, but to be both is impossible. A nation must either rise to the one or sink to the other condition. We do not deny that a nation of men may be morally brutes; but we do deny that a nation of civilized and enlightened Christian men—fellow-citizens of Englishmen of the nineteenth century, can be so. Further: has our reviewer ever seen or heard of a work entitled "The West Indian Colonies; the calumnies and misrepresentations circulated against them by the Edinburgh Review, Mr. Clarkson, Mr. Copper, &c., examined and refuted by James McQueen," and published in London, A. D., 1824? If ever corrupt witnesses and bitter, prejudiced falsehood, were held up to shame and obloquy, here we have damning proof against the so-called reformers, who, to satisfy a malevolent spite, or to gratify a sentimental whim, rushed headlong to the ruin of an innocent and prosperous people. We think it is Sterne who has beautifully remarked that "when it is once determined that a lamb shall be offered up, there may be sticks enough found under any hedge to complete the sacrifice." Jamaica was doomed (*delenda est Carthago*), and the scarce vital wrecks of her once triumphant prosperity now alone remain to show what fanatics can accomplish. But, says the reviewer, we cite *legal documents*. Ah! that is distressing, and we must give way before such authority, however the darkest perjury may have been concerned in the concocting of them. We are then condemned in the case of our brethren of Jamaica. ***Legal documents*** cannot be disputed.

"But," says somebody, "one of the maxims which the devil in a late visit upon earth left to his disciples is, when once you have got up, kick the stool from under you." Our reviewer evidently thinks himself safely mounted now, and, Lord! what a hurry he is in to kick away the stool of legal documents! Some half-dozen pages or so after his remarks upon Jamaica documents, having got his readers into a fine swing of sentimental horrors, he thinks apparently it is high time to follow the advice of the Rev. gentleman from the lower regions, and with a quick glance round—not, we presume, without a furtive wink at the knowing ones—he gives a most vigorous kick at the said stool, just as an unfortunate wight on the opposite side of the argument was triumphantly climbing thereon.

"'An American writer," he exclaims indignantly, "An American writer of a book, entitled England's Glory and her Shame, gives the result of his observations during a tour in the manufacturing districts of England, and draws a most appalling picture of the misery and degradation of the manufacturers, to the great consolation, no doubt, of the American slave-owners, who are thus left satisfied

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that if slavery is a bad thing, there is no alternative but something worse. Now, we happen to have ascertained, through the medium of a gentleman, who personally knew the author, that he *set foot in* Europe, but concocted his work partly from blue-books, and, perhaps, partly from imagination. It must however be added, in fairness to the author, that he was probably not aware of the amount of misrepresentation some of these blue-books contain. They are the reports of the evidence taken before the committee on the ten-hours' bill; a work which too much resembled a supposed botanical examination of a certain farm and garden, resulting in a collection of a few nettles out of one field, and four or five thistles out of another, and a handful of groundsel from the garden, representing these *as the produce of the estate.*"

So much for *legal documents.* Excellent they are against the slave-holder, but o' the other side—bah! kick the stool over, and lo! your antagonist is sprawling on his back. And so Jamaica witnesses were right, and ten-hours' bill witnesses were wrong. Documents here—documents there. White, they are; presto, black. True, they are; presto, false. Pretty jugglery! and worthy of all admiration!

Too truly has Mr. McQueen remarked in his work upon Jamaica, of which we but now made mention, that "the French Revolution, which, with its infamous principles, convulsed the world, boasted to have been built upon the very foundations on which Mr. Clarkson grounds his charge against the West India Colonies, namely, '*Nature* and *Reason!*' Nature and Reason are truly high authorities, but too often, like the cheating oracles of old, do they render a doubtful response, the erroneous interpretation of which becomes a snare to the feet, and a pit of destruction to the hasty interpreter of destiny. Long and laborious is the task of him who would read the truth. Like the worshipper at the cave of Trophonius, a life-long sadness, a wearing out of soul and body, in the eager pursuit of the great reality, is the price to be paid for its acquisition. The enthusiast seldom reaches it.—Blindly zealous, ignorantly active, in proportion as he has the least certain foundation for his opinions, he defends them with impulsive fervor; stirs, in fanatic haste, the bubbling cauldron of society, little heeding what poisonous skum and froth may thus be floated to the surface; and lauds himself at last, like a Robespierre, or his petty imitators in revolutionizing, a Buxton, a Clarkson, or a Stevens, even in the chaotic ruin which his madness has effected. France rose from her ashes to run a new course of greatness and of madness. For Jamaica, alas! there seems no phœnix life."

Our reviewers and commentators generally lay a constant stress upon the "uncontrolled power" which they suppose the slave-owner to possess. We would fain convince them that in truth no such power exists. This bugbear is the offspring of their own distempered imagination.

"Although slaves, by the Act of 1740, are declared to be chattels personal, yet they are also, in our law, considered as *persons* with many *rights* and *liabilities*, civil and criminal." (Vide Negro Law of South Carolina, collected and digested by J. B. O'Neall, chapter 2d, section 11th.)

"By the Act of 1821, the murder of a slave is declared to be a felony, without the benefit of clergy." (Ib. ib. section 15.)

"To constitute the murder of a slave, no other ingredients are necessary than such as enter into the offence of murder at common law. So the killing on sudden heat and passion is the same as manslaughter." (Ib. ib. section 16.)

"An attempt to kill and murder a slave by shooting at him, held to be a misdemeanor (State *vs.* Mann), and indictable as assault with intent to kill and murder." (Ib. ib. section 17.)

"The *unlawful* whipping or beating of any slave, without sufficient provocation, by word, or act, is a misdemeanor, and subjects the offender, on conviction, to imprisonment not exceeding 6 months, and a fine not exceeding $500. (Ib. ib. section 18.)

"The Act of 1740, requires the owners of slaves to provide them with sufficient clothing, covering, and food; and if they should fail to do so, the owners, respectively, are declared to be liable to be informed against, subjected to fine, &c. (Ib. ib. section 25.)

"It is the settled law of this state,—that an owner cannot abandon a slave needing either medical treatment, care, food, or raiment. If he does, he will be

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liable to any one who may furnish the same." (Ib. ib. section 27.)

"By act of 1740, slaves are protected from labor on the Sabbath-day. The violation of the law in this respect subjects the offender to a fine of £5 current money, equal in value to $3.70 for every slave so worked." (Ib. ib. section 28.)*

Surely these should suffice to show that the owner's power is not "*uncontrolled.*" However he may evade the law when he hides himself in the "remote districts" of which the Barbadian ex-planter discourses, he is kept in check so long as the arm of the law is long enough to reach him. We presume that every country has some point within its limits, where law penetrates with difficulty. England, too, has her moors and her high-roads; aye, and—perhaps worse than either—the purblind alleys of her great cities, where crime boldly treads, or cunningly hides herself. But surely not therefore shall we say, because her laws are sometimes inefficient, that all are iniquitous. Our reviewer triumphantly remarks that the opponents of Mrs. Stowe, in not denying the *possibility*, virtually admit the truth of her statements. Upon the same principle of argument, what fearful pictures might as *possibilities* be deduced from the institutions of every existing state of society! What law,—what bond,—what tie,—might not be abolished if *possible* abuse were sufficient to condemn it? Ruler and subject,—servant and master,—parent and child,—husband and wife,—cast all to the winds! These may be, nay, more,—these *are* all abused,—*daily* abused,—*brutally* abused. "Nature and Reason!" cries the old school of god-improvers. "Higher-law!" responds the new. On! on! what next? Where shall we destroy? Say ye, "what next?" Ask ye "where?" Nay, 'tis a foolish prejudice to doubt. Sweep every thing! everywhere! The Goth and the Vandal of old found something to spare,—something to respect. Not so our innovators. *Excelsior!* Communism and Fraternity!—Barbarism and Brutality! God of Heaven! pity this world which Thou hast made!

The reviewer says "there is a plain admission on the part of the Slave State Legislatures that there is nothing that can be inflicted on a man in this life worse than slavery in the fact that the punishment affixed to crimes committed by the slaves *is always death.* Cases of arson, theft, and burglary, which would be comparatively lightly dealt with, if committed by white men, are all death to the slave." And then comes a flourish from the "Cincinnati Herald," ending with a marvelously ferocious, "He can be killed. Let him be killed."

"We should very much like to know," as the old song saith, whether our reviewer means to claim exemption from all response and dispute, for himself as well as for Mrs. Stowe, on the plea of the unattackableness of *works of fiction.* Is *his* article, too, a *so-called* work of fiction? Verily, whether or not he claim for it the merit, we must give our mite of approbation to the inventive genius therein displayed. Truly, it is full of "most quaint and admirable inventions." For fear, however, that some simple blockheads should really imagine that our talented brother of the quill meant these witty sallies to be taken as literal truth, we will, for the benefit of such dunderpates, answer his statements seriously. The reviewer will find, by a glance at the statutes of England, that arson and burglary are both in his own happy land punishable with *death.* In most of our states, we believe,—and certainly in South Carolina, from which we write,—the old English law is for these crimes retained in force, alike for *white and black.* For theft, we have abolished the more severe punishment still retained by English law, (which frequently, as the learned reviewer no doubt knows, pronounces death as the penalty for the purloining of a few shillings' worth of property,) and have substituted, according to the offence, lighter punishment, alike for *white and black.* For *both*, the legal penalty is the same. One difference, however, we must acknowledge. While the law is the same for both, there is, it must be confessed, great inequality in the administering of it. Justice is no longer even-handed. One side may often escape the law, which rigorously pursues the other. But which is it? We fear our transatlantic friends will hardly credit us, when we answer: *The negro.* And yet the thing explains itself easily enough! The white man, encroaching upon the rights of society, becomes a public nuisance, which it is

* But for the complete slave laws of South Carolina and other Southern States, see De Bow's Industrial Resources, Art. "Slavery."

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necessary to keep in check, and the only means of so doing is by such bodily restraint and suffering as shall hold him in fear of future transgression. It is, therefore, to the interest of society that he should be punished, and he *is* punished accordingly. The negro, under similar circumstances, will often have his master to stand between him and the law. For offences not too notoriously criminal, indemnification from the master to the injured person, oftenest ends the affair altogether. Where the state as prosecutor is not forced to take cognizance of the offence, the master can frequently buy off individual prosecution, and both interest and humanity incline him to do so. Interest, because the slave, unenfeebled by imprisonment and stripes, is a valuable property for which he is willing to pay; humanity, because the slave, in his childlike, dependent position, becomes to him a part of self, which he would rather correct with the mercy of a father than the severity of a judge. He buys him off therefore. Society is satisfied, because the master thus renders himself the virtual sponsor of the slave, making it his own interest to prevent further misdemeanor. The negro gets his whipping, goes home to warm himself by his fire, and perhaps laugh in his sleeve at "*Massa*," who thinks, "dat kind o' lashin ebber hut nigga," while the white man bears the double infliction of imprisonment and stripes. In England, for a similar offence, if mercy so tempered justice, (as we know it now oftenest does,) so far as to spare life, the offender is glad with that to escape, banished from hearth and home, wife and children, a disgraced exile to —— he knows not whither.

The reviewer gives what he calls a digest of our slave-laws,—containing thirteen propositions, almost every one of which either places things in their falsest light, or are in their grossest statements utterly untrue. His proposition that the labor of the slave is compulsory and uncompensated, we answer by saying that he receives a very much larger compensation in actual value, in housing, in food, and in raiment, than the half-starved artisan of many a proud metropolis. He is, it is true, obliged, in proper weather and when in health, to do his work. He has *not* the right by idleness or drunkenness to starve his family for the indulgence of his own vices; but he is, in return for this constraint, insured a comfortable maintenance for himself and family under all circumstances; in sickness and in health; in feeble youth and in tottering age; through good report and through evil report. Even in his vices he is saved from that lowest degradation of unprotected misery which the white man must meet. The lowest slave cannot sink to the degradation of the outcast white.

"The amount of toil, the time allowed for rest, are dictated solely by the master."

This is untrue. The law, as we have shown, protects the slave from Sabbath-day labor, and another section (vide O'Neall's Digest, chap. 2d, section 29), part of an old English act, limits his labor to from 14 to 15 hours per day. The time here allotted for labor is, however, so much more than is now required of the slave that the law is in fact of non-effect. The working hours are in South Carolina from 8 to 12, varying with the season and exigencies of the crop, with occasional intermission of holidays and half holidays, which, if "dictated solely by the master," are not, we presume, on that account to be considered as obnoxious. If the duchesses of Stafford-house could be instrumental in giving to each of their tenants an occasional merry holiday, it is scarcely to be presumed that their vassals would take it in dudgeon, because inconsistent with their dignity as men.

"He may be separated from his family." "He can make no contracts, has no legal right to property."

And yet, as a *fact*, there is less separation among negro families than among whites. Starvation drives harder than the hardest master. The property of the slave, for property he always to a certain extent has, he holds by a stronger tenure, upheld as he is by his master's protection, than many a poor freeman who, by taxes and tithes, individual trickery and legal frauds, finds himself juggled out of every right but that of dying unprotected, grateful to the disease which opens his prison door.

"He cannot bear witness against the white man."

Granted—and properly cannot—nor would the witness of a similar class be taken as of much weight in England against their aristocratic masters. Every

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man in England is, legally, free to say what he pleases, but dares any man say that there is not a gag upon the mouth of the ignorant and illiterate poor? that his witness is of material weight against his lordly ruler? The word of the law matters little, and whatever its letter may be, the testimony of a lower and therefore of necessity a jealous class—of an ignorant and therefore of necessity an easily corruptible class—is and should always be taken with a reservation. Upon the same judicious principle of guarding against jealousy, corruption and prejudice, the English law requires that a man should be judged by his peers. A man of the people cannot sit upon a jury to judge the guilt of a noble. The jealousies of rank as well as the prejudice of ignorance must be guarded against. So far we grant, but the reviewer adds, to the clause quoted by us, that slaves cannot bear witness against the white man when "such testimony would be for the benefit of a *slave*; but they may give testimony against a *fellow-slave*, or free colored man, even in cases affecting life, if the *master* is to *reap the advantage* of it."

Certainly we are hence to conclude, without any unfair reading, that he *can* give such testimony for the *benefit* of a *white* man, and that he can *only* give testimony against the *slave* when his master *is to reap the advantage*. Both propositions are equally false. He can *never* bear witness against a white man, and can *always* do so against a negro, although in either case his witnessing, or his abstinence from witnessing, might be to the utter ruin of his master.

"The slave may be punished at his master's discretion, without trial, without any means of legal redress, whether his offence be real or imaginary, and the master can transfer the same despotic power to any person or persons he may choose to appoint."

We have above quoted an act showing that whipping without sufficient provocation is a punishable misdemeanor. Another act (vide O'Neall's Digest, chapter ii. section 21) prescribes the punishment for *maiming* or "any other cruel punishment." "This provision, it has been held, extends to any cruel beating of a slave."

"The slave (says the reviewer) not being allowed to resist a white man, under *any* circumstances, his only safety consists in the fact that his owner may bring suit and recover the price of his body, in case his life is taken."

This is wilfully false. Our law necessarily forbids, as a general rule, the striking of a white man by a negro, unless under command, or in defence of his master. The negro, whether bond or free, cannot therefore be guilty of manslaughter. In killing a white man, he therefore becomes always guilty of murder, unless the case falls, as many are judged to do, under the head of excusable homicide. An express act too gives to the courts, trying any negro under the law of murder, the power, when any favorable circumstances appear, to mitigate his punishment. (Vide O'Neall's Digest, Chapter iii.) It is intentional misrepresentation of this law to say that a negro must stand still and be murdered, that his master may recover the price of his body. No negro defending himself against a murderous attack would be held guilty. The case would come under the act as excusable homicide. We have already shown that the murder of a negro is equally punishable with that of a white man, and his master, or any other being proved guilty, may be hung for it.

"The slave is entirely unprotected in his domestic relations."

False again. He is protected by the master and through the master.

"The operation of the laws tends to deprive slaves of religious instruction and consolation."

Utterly false. No law, having to the smallest extent any such tendency, is to be found in our whole collection of statutes. The habit of our country is to admit slaves to all places of worship, certain parts of churches being generally set aside for them, though we have seen, in some of our handsomest and most frequented churches, old family servants seated in front of their masters and mistresses along the aisles, or at the foot of the pulpit or the altar. Places of worship are, besides, frequently built by owners for their special accommodation.*

"What is a trifling fault in a *white man* is considered highly criminal in a *slave*. The same offences which cost a white man a few dollars only are punishable in the negro with death."

* There are many in New-Orleans. Our planters frequently employ regular chaplains to their slaves.

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False as the rest. We have already answered a similar accusation above.

"The whole power of the law is exerted to keep slaves in a state of the lowest ignorance."

False, again. There is a law of South Carolina, we do not know how far extending to other states, forbidding that slaves should be taught to read. For ourselves, we consider this act as one which would be better repealed as useless and of non-effect. Its object was to prevent the circulation of incendiary writings. To this purpose, however, it is worse than ineffectual. It does not prevent and has the usual effect of exciting a desire for forbidden fruit. Still, even with this impulse, book-learning is so contrary to negro-nature, that there is the smallest possible disposition to seek it, although it is notorious with us that every negro, who chooses to take the trouble to learn, may be taught to read in spite of the law, and very generally by the children even of his owners. The law is based upon a false principle, inasmuch as it was intended for an object to which it must necessarily prove inefficient, and, like all such, as an unfailing consequence, falls of itself dead, without the legal form of repeal. Granting, however, that it were in full force, would it in fact do more than to place the negro on a level with the corresponding classes of other nations? How much book-learning does a man get, when rest and sleep must be cheated of their dues to fill the hungry stomach by manual toil? Ignorance moreover does not consist in the mere deficiency of knowledge in one's spelling-book. The slave-negro of our United States, in spite of his inferiority of race, stands higher in the scale of being, is better informed in the duties of life, more polished and humanized by association—in short, is the higher man, than the wretched offcasts of a nobler race which crowd the streets and lanes of every densely populated metropolis. Our reviewer sneers at us that slavery can only be sustained by the help of the law; that law must "come in to defend and maintain it." If this be so, he only proves that slavery is *not barbarism*,—is *not* despotic power,—is *not* lawless might. Every institution of civilized society requires to be maintained and defended by law;—maintained and defended against lawless barbarism and brutal force. This argument, therefore, works entirely in our favor, but we think that such an assertion claims too much. Slavery does exist quite independently of law, and exists, too, in a form scarcely, we presume, more soothing than ours to the feelings of our friends and advisers the Stafford-house ladies and North British reviewers. They will hardly contend that it is law which gives his majesty of Dahomy the right to roast his slaves, as we have noticed above. Law is the defence of the weak against the strong. What need of law, where power is supreme? "Thus far shalt thou go and no farther," is the fiat of law. Bad laws are weak laws, inefficient laws. They do not sufficiently protect, and therefore are they bad. An oppressive law is so, not because there is in the law any power of oppression, but because the individual or party imposing it, has the *might* which he or they choose to abuse, and there is no power in the law sufficiently strong to keep them in check. The despot who makes a law giving to himself the right of confiscating the property of his subjects under certain circumstances, however whimsical or tyrannical, does not exercise his confiscations in right of the power given by the law, but by the power which is inherent in himself, his circumstances or position; and the law, even such as it is, is a virtual acknowledgment of some limit to that power. He does not confiscate under all circumstances, but under such and such. The government imposing an unjust law does so, not through any power of the law, but because, having the superior might which enables it to enforce an unjust demand, it will not allow the law to be made sufficiently strong to check its rapacity. The wolf robs, not through the law, but through want of the law. Law is the voice of reason curbing the rule of might. It is never a bestower of power, but a check, however feeble and inefficient that check may be. The nation which rebels against oppressive laws, combats not for the abolition, but for the better regulating of law. A revolution which seeks to abolish law, must end necessarily in despotism. Perfect codes of law are not to be looked for in an imperfect world, and ours are doubtless faulty enough. It is something, however, to know, that they are no worse than those of contemporary nations, and that in their results the sum

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of comfort and enjoyment is at least as great for humanity as under any other system.

Here again we subject ourselves to the sneers of the reviewer, who, because a common ground of defence with us, is to show how much the position of our negro is preferable to that of the white slave of other countries, remarks: "The way that this argument is pushed would seem to imply that *better* must mean always *good*." Truly this is laughable enough. If *better* does not mean always good, it certainly does mean always *better;* and it would be the part of a madman to abandon *better* because it was not *good*, and to take *worse* instead. It is a most legitimate and a strong argument to prove that, however we must acknowledge some faults in a system, there is in the casting up of results none other found to surpass it. *Pro optimo est minime malus.*

The reviewer argues that with the freeman (so-called) "no legislative restriction sets any limit to his improvement." This is not exactly true; but granting it were so, want, poverty and starvation set frightful barriers, to overleap which, no *legislative* permit gives the power. Where is the master so hard as poverty? where the driver so pitiless as starvation? The average condition of man under any government is a pretty fair criterion of the encouragement which such government gives to his improvement. A strange inconsistency in the arguments of negrophilists generally is a constant lamentation over the degradation of the negro, while, if we are to believe their descriptions of negro character, nothing can approach nearer perfection. Take, for instance, Mrs. Stowe's great work, which, like the little leaven that leaveneth the whole loaf, has set fermenting the entire mass of rabid fanaticism in two hemispheres, and what saintly pictures does it not represent. "If (remarks the 'Journal of Commerce') these characters are fair types, as the writer doubtless intended them to be, of the mass of southern slaves, we confess that we have abundant reason for heartily wishing that all Africa were under a tutelage that would develop so much of Christian symmetry of character. Why employ missionaries to spend their years among the malaria of the African continent, if the southern system of slavery brings out such rare and beautiful models of moral excellence?" Laud and glory should, indeed, be to the system which could produce such characters. Mrs. Stowe has, however, mistaken her ground. Her black angels are as hard to find as her white devils; both being creations whose existence belongs to the *terra incognita* of her own brain. The negro is neither the strangely perfect, delicately sensitive being thus described at one moment by the negrophilists, nor yet the degraded brute which in the next breath they would represent him. The negro is not a degraded, but essentially a lower man. By nature a grown-up child, he requires the authority and the indulgence, the checks and the privileges accorded to his younger prototype. Such he enjoys under our system; a system not perfect, but perfectionable, and requiring only to be let alone in its natural progress to develop itself to fuller proportions of beauty and symmetry.

Our "North British" reviewer devotes some pages to prove that the slave does not *like* slavery, and adduces advertisements, &c., to convince the world that he frequently attempts to escape from it. We should be delighted to discover that there was any locality or condition in life, where every individual in it *liked* his position. Does the Irish beggar, sleeping in his ditch, like his? Does the starving artisan of England *like his?* Does the hungry mother, of the same prosperous land, who poisons her babe, that the survivors may for a time subsist upon the paltry pension of a burial club, *like hers?* Such fearful instances may stand against scores of advertisements, and whole columns of falsehood from abolition papers to boot. Few are satisfied in this world, even amongst the so-called happy.

> "Against our peace we arm our will;
> Amidst our plenty, something still
> For houses, horses, pictures, planting,
> To thee, to me, to him, is wanting:
> That cruel something unpossessed
> Corrodes and leavens all the rest."

It would be strange indeed if the whole body of negro slaves were to form the great exception to this universal longing of mankind. Taking them for all in all, there is no class of men in which a larger proportion can be found to be satisfied. The only wonder is that, with the whole pack of abolition hounds and new-light hunters in full cry after them, there is

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not tenfold the discontent and uneasiness that really exists. "What American, North or South," triumphantly asks the reviewer, "would like to change places with the slave?" What scaly inhabitant of the deep, O most sapient brother, or the reviewing brotherhood, would like to change places with an oyster? and yet oysters *are*, and God made them; and, although the sportive denizen of the ocean, as he glances to and fro through its briny recesses, might not fancy being suddenly caught by the tail and glued down in some muddy shoal or gloomy submarine recess, yet have we a fair right to conclude that, as the oyster has, as evidently as his more sprightly brother of the deep, his object and destiny in existence, so is he by nature suited to its functions and its contingencies; and yet we might imagine the poor devil of an oyster made exceedingly uneasy in his position, should some whispering demon of mischief set up a submarine school of communism, and lecture on the propriety of general abolition. "Liberty! liberty!" cries the oyster; "am I too not a brother of the deep?" Alas! what knows he of liberty? He fancies that he need but be released from that rock, and, without further effort, he may skim the waves, or plunge, sporting, beneath the billows. "Liberty from these cursed bonds!" exclaims the agitator. "Liberty!" echoes his deluded victim. Behold! if the bond be burst, has he found liberty? Nay, rather destruction. True liberty consists but in the freedom to exercise those faculties which God has given, and the oyster, upon his rock, is as free as his nature permits him to be.

As regards negro-nature, he who runs may read. The negro (as a people) *cannot* be free. He has not the faculty of freedom. In no age and in no land has he lived free from restraint, except as the savage. Scarcely by the grossest quibble upon words can the imbruted savage, in his native wilds, be called a freeman. Does he promise better under England's pet experiment of enfranchisement in Jamaica? He has been watched over, helped—and what is the result? So long as England will make his clothes and bake his bread, he will wear the one and eat the other; but (we quote from the London Times),—

"Our legislation has been dictated by the presumed necessities of the African slave. After the emancipation act, a large charge was assessed upon the colony in aid of civil and religious institutions for the benefit of the enfranchised negro, and it was hoped that these colored subjects of the British Crown would soon be assimilated to their fellow-citizens. From all the information which reaches us, no less than from the visible probabilities of the case, we are constrained to believe that these hopes have been falsified. The negro has not acquired with his freedom any habits of industry or morality. His independence is little better than that of an uncaptured brute. Having accepted few of the restraints of civilization, he is amenable to few of its necessities; and the wants of his nature are so easily satisfied, that, at the current rate of wages, he is called upon for nothing but fitful and desultory exertion. The blacks, therefore, instead of becoming intelligent husbandmen, have become vagrants and squatters, and it is now apprehended, with the failure of cultivation in the island, will come the failure of its resources for instructing or controlling its population. So imminent does this consummation appear that memorials have been signed by classes of colonial society hitherto standing aloof from politics, and not only the bench and the bar, but the bishops, clergy and ministers of all denominations in the island, without exception, have recorded their conviction that, in absence of timely relief, the religious and educational institutions of the island must be abandoned, and the masses of the population retrograde to barbarism."

Again, we ask, will any quibble of words descend low enough to argue that this barbaric license is liberty?

But the most fairly tried experiment of negro independence in modern days, is the great empire of Hayti, concerning which we have lately had some most edifying developments. We refer to the correspondence of R. M. Walsh, Esq., late commissioner of the United States to Hayti. Mr. Walsh, who is a Pennsylvanian, is, we must premise, certainly not to be suspected of any bias in favor of Southern institutions. Not only the locality of his birth and education would incline him to entirely opposite predilections, but, very certainly, no one with such a bias could for a moment think of accepting such a position as the one occupied by this gentleman when writing

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to our Secretary of State the series of letters from one of which we make our extracts. The whole correspondence is such a *bijou* in its way that it is well worth the study of the world; quite a Koh-i-noor, which we specially recommend to the attention of Stafford-house. Let the parliament of ladies pronounce, if they dare, in favor of his supremely disgusting *nigger* majesty, Faustin Soulouque. We have space only for one or two short extracts, showing the impressions of an unprejudiced observer regarding the condition of the country and the general nature and improvability of its inhabitants. Mr. Walsh writes to the then Secretary of State, Hon. Mr. Webster:—

"I trust, sir, you will pardon me if I sometimes wander from the serious tone appropriate to a dispatch, but it is difficult to preserve one's gravity with so absurd a caricature of civilization before one's eyes as is here exhibited in every shape.

"Nothing saves these people from being infinitely ridiculous but the circumstance of their being often supremely disgusting by their fearful atrocities. The change from a ludicrous farce to a bloody tragedy is here as frequent as it is terrible; and the smiles which the former irrisistibly provoke, can only be repressed by the sickening sensations occasioned by the latter.

"It is a conviction which has been forced upon me by what I have learned here, that negroes only cease to be children when they degenerate into savages. As long as they happen to be in a genial mood it is the rattle and the straw by which they are tickled and pleased; and when their passions are once aroused, the most potent weapons of subjugation can alone prevent the most horrible evils. A residence here, however brief, must cause the most determined philanthropist to entertain serious doubts of the possibility of their ever attaining the full stature of intellectual and civilized manhood, unless some miraculous interposition is vouchsafed in their behalf. In proportion as the recollections and traditions of the old colonial civilization are fading away, and the imitative propensity, which is so strong a characteristic of the African, is losing its opportunities of exercise, the black inhabitants of Hayti are reverting to the primitive state from which they were elevated by contact with the whites—a race whose innate superiority would seem to be abundantly proved by the mere fact that it is approaching the goal of mental progress, while the other has scarcely made a step in advance of the position in which it was originally placed. It is among the mulattoes alone, as a general rule, that intelligence and education are to be found; but they are neither sufficiently numerous, nor virtuous, nor enlightened, to do more than diminish the rapidity of the nation's descent, and every day accelerates the inevitable capacity by lessening their influence and strength.

"The contrast between the picture which is now presented by this country and that which it exhibited when under the dominion of the French, affords a melancholy confirmation of what I have said. It was then indeed an "exulting and abounding" land—a land literally flowing with milk and honey; now, it might be affirmed without extravagance, that where it is not an arid and desolate waste, it is flooded with the waters of bitterness, or covered with noisome and poisonous weeds."

"The government, in spite of its constitutional forms, is a despotism of the most ignorant, corrupt and vicious description, with a military establishment so enormous that, while it absorbs the largest portion of the revenue for its support, it dries up the very sources of national prosperity, by depriving the fields of their necessary laborers, to fill the town with pestilent hordes of depraved and irreclaimable idlers. The treasury is bankrupt, and every species of profligate and ruinous expedient is resorted to, for the purpose of obtaining the means of gratifying an insane passion for frivolous expenditure. A great portion of the public revenue is wasted upon the personal vanities of the emperor, and his ridiculous efforts to surround himself with a splendor which he fancies to be preeminently imperial. It is a fact, that the same legislature which voted him several hundreds of thousands of francs for some absurd costume, refused an appropriation of twenty-five thousand francs for public schools. The population for the most part is immersed in Cimmerian darkness that can never be pierced by the few and feeble rays which emanate from the higher portions of the social system, whilst there is a constant fermentation of jealousies and antipathies

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between the great majority and the only class at all capable of guiding the destinies of the land which threaten at every moment to shatter the political vessel in which they are so perilously working. As to the refining and elevating influences of civilized life—the influences of religion, of literature, of science, of art—they do not exert the least practical sway, even if they can be said to exist at all. The priests of the altar set the worst examples of every kind of vice, and are universally mere adventurers, disowned by the church, who alone can come here in consequence of the assumption by the Emperor of ecclesiastical authority, which militates with that of the Roman pontiff. The press is shackled to such a degree as to prevent the least freedom of opinion, and people are afraid to give utterance, even in confidential conversation, to aught that may be tortured into the slightest criticism upon the action of the government.

"In short, the combination of evil and destructive elements is such, that the ultimate regeneration of the Haytians seems to me to be the wildest of Utopian dreams. Dismal as this picture may appear, its coloring is not exaggerated. It is as faithful a representation as I can sketch of the general aspect of this miserable country—a country where God has done everything to make his creature happy, and where the creature is doing everything to mar the work of God."

What is this but a rapid descent to barbarism, faintly combated by the relics of a fast-dying semi-civilization? Such is and has ever been the fate of the negro when left to his own guidance. Childlike in intellect he needs a perpetual leading-string. Under the dominion of the white man among us, as formerly in Hayti, with the imitativeness, careless docility and disposition to dependance, which form a part of his childlike nature, he follows in the track of his master and becomes the half-enlightened, useful, and contented being exhibited under our slave system. Set him free from the wholesome check of authority, and behold what he must be.

We have made throughout this article no reference to the important subjects of cotton, sugar, coffee, &c., without which productions the world would now get on but badly. Cotton is, for England particularly, of such vital importance, that the cessation of two crops from America would set her in the blaze of revolution. Do our philanthropists contemplate this among the results of emancipation? Or do they fancy that the emancipated negro of the United States will grow their cotton better than those of Jamaica and St. Domingo have done their sugar and coffee? We have made no reference to this great point in the question, because we have turned our argument principally to combat the accusations of cruelty and abstract injustice brought against our system, and are anxious to show that, quite independently of the benefit accruing to the white man, the negro is happier, *ex necessitate rei*, in his position with us, than is possible in any other circumstances. Amalgamation being put (as we presume the bitterest of our antagonists will allow us to do) out of the question, what must become of him if released from this salutary bondage? Let the ladies of Stafford-house deliberate upon this question. Let them contemplate, if they can, the flood of barbarism which, following their wished-for measure of emancipation, would inundate the world. For, strange to say, at this moment, upon the negro and negro slavery depends all that the world has of highest civilization. America in ruins—England in revolution—what becomes of the world? Ladies, at your next meeting, think of this, and then, if you dare, send your incendiary appeals across the Atlantic to try whether, like a nation of Tarpeias, we women of America can be either frightened, bribed, or flattered, to our country's ruin.

And now, "glory to God in the highest—on earth peace, and good-will toward men." Ladies of Stafford-house, thus you end your appeal; thus, too, dare we. Our tongue shrinks not the ordeal. We hold out to you the right hand of fellowship; we say to you, as women, slander not so your sex as to consent to believe, on the blind testimony of careless and misinformed, if not mischievous scribblers, the libels which you have so thoughtlessly accredited. Are we mothers without mothers' hearts? Are we wives, sisters and daughters, yet have no heart-throb for those mothers, wives, sisters and daughters whom Providence has committed to our supervising care? Are *we* alone marked out by nature as devoid of that God-given woman instinct whose privilege it is to pity and to soothe? Believe us, no! Woman is woman still,

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and were this system what you represent it, long since would her heart have risen against it, and with pleading tears and earnest prayer, she would have taught the son of her bosom that truth is nobler than gain, and humanity better than power. The outspring of a mother's heart (ladies, though ye be duchesses and countesses, have ye not felt it?) cannot limit itself to her own babes, and we who watch and sympathize with the sick and the mourner, must learn to love (in Christian charity, and human brotherhood, to love) these our humble friends and close dependents. We cannot shirk our poor, nor bid them betake themselves to asylums and houses of refuge. We dare not (whether in law or conscience, we dare not) shuffle them off upon town-councils, beadles, and constables. We have no deputy work, nor can we ease our consciences that our charity is done by substitute. With our own hand we relieve, with our own heart we sympathize; and, believe us, ladies, if you have never tried it, go amongst the lowly; nurse one poor sufferer through his agony; with your own hand bathe the anguished brow—with your own eye watch the flickering breath, and you will perchance find that one act of practical charity more softens the heart than a thousand theories for foreign missions and slave emancipation. Look, ladies, at the slave at your own door; the Lazarus at the gate of Dives. Though decorously excluded from the princely gates of Stafford-house, turn but a few corners and you will find the thronging multitudes of misery. Blind alleys are here, damp cellars, filthy garrets, the stench and the wretchedness and the vice of which are scarcely decent for the investigations of gentle ladies; hells, to which our poorest negro hut would present a cheerful and a blessed contrast. England, your own proud, happy England, teems with wretchedness. We speak not of her Indian coolies crushed by the iron rule of conquest; we speak not of her Kaffir foes fast disappearing from existence to make way for Saxon laws; we speak not now even of her wretched Irish emigrant forced under pain of death to flee from the land that starves him. No! nearer, nearer, ladies! even at your chariot wheels, almost under them, crushed in the dust and groveling in their wretchedness, lie these, the victims of the juggernaut of English aristocracy. Ha! and if you cannot *pity*, ladies, may you not perhaps be forced to *fear* them? These down-trodden millions can think; they can reason; they can rise from their wretchedness and cry aloud against the false sentimentality which casts its sympathy, its tears and its efforts upon the unknown and imagined evils of far-off lands, while misery shrieks unheeded at its feet. Aye, they may turn those shrieks to thunder. "Liberty and equality" may resound in your ears in other than the gentle tones wherein your lady-like voices speak them. God forbid that this should be! and yet beware that, in your sentimental follies, you do not give the first stroke of the tocsin for your own destruction! Shall liberty be for the negro and not for the white man? Shall bread be for the stranger and not for the brother? Hark! the cry is already on the wind! *Egalité! Fraternité! Droit de travail! La propriété c'est le vol!* What means all this? It means that trampled millions, when they reason, rush from crouching idiocy to rampant madness; it means that an uninformed people governs fiercely when it seizes the reins; it means that sparks may light a flame; it means that your beggars, proud ladies! may yet be your rulers. Beware how *you* chant the "*Marseillaise!*"

These are hard words, of which, even as we utter them, we repent—mischievous words, to feed the flame of discontent and rouse to wrathful resistance against irremediable ills. We believe that such works as Mayhew's Sketches of London, Alton Locke, and others similar, which are constantly emitted from the English press, are calculated (by pointing out evils for which they have no practicable remedy, thus exciting vague, aimless, and therefore necessarily mischievous effort,) to do much harm, and we would not willingly play into the hands of such agitators. But what can we do? We are put upon the defensive, and must show that our system is not the one *monstrum horrendum, informe, ingens, cui lumen ademptum*—is not the great Giant Despair which you imagine it. We mean, therefore, no reproach upon the greatest nation that ever God's light shone upon. We mean but to show that even England—great, glorious England—proud, and justly proud of her people and her institutions, has her running sores too fearfully nauseous

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to bear the probing. The proverb bids us mistrust the sick physican. He should not pretend to be the physician of others who himself teems with ulcers.

To conclude. We have been induced to the writing of this article, principally in the hope of convincing the ladies of Stafford-house, and others who may be disposed to join them, that they have mistaken their sisters of America. They have judged, we fear, by some noisy specimens of woman's-rights meetings, that the masses of womankind are ready to set the world on fire for a little notoriety. They have believed on the testimony of certain *âmes damnées* in the abolition service, vouched for by the affidavits of all the *gobes-mouches*, who have written out their tales of horror for the benefit of the world, that the state of affairs was desperate with us of the slavery section, and have supposed that the ranting dames and demoiselles above referred to, might sweep us from the world of argument by some decisive "boo to a goose" process. Perhaps our arguments may be of sufficient weight to convince our aristocratic sisters of England, that there is with us of the Southern United States, a strong *corps de reserve* of sober, quiet women, who, satisfied to find our duties at home, (not for want of thought, but because thought teaches us that therein lies woman's highest task, and the fulfilment of her noblest mission,) can nevertheless start up with the true feeling of womanhood in defence of right and property, hearth and home. *Ora et labora*—strive and pray. Such is the lesson of our life, ladies, and it were hard to find a better. With us woman finds her noblest rule, her highest privilege; a privilege which, in the aggregate, her sex has never abused. However individual exceptions are to be found, woman (as a class) never sides with the oppressor. Our system, abhorrent as it seems to your ladyships, has the sanction of our hearts and heads, and in the conscientious exercise of it, we find enough to occupy both without the necessity of joining any of the world-improving and God-improving societies which at present are so much in vogue, and each one of which threatens the world with some new *fiat lux* for its regeneration.

Heaven bless you, ladies! Have not we, too, hands and feet? eyes and ears? heads and hearts? What sticks or stones are we that we should contentedly settle down with the barren waste of wretchedness which you have been led to believe around us? If there is misery, can we not see it? If there is wretchedness, can we not hear it? *Our* poor, we have already told you, cannot be shoved into garrets and cellars. They are with us at bed and at board; and when there is woe with them, the wailing of it is in our ears. Believe ye that there is also no pity for it in our hearts? Shall we love—(grant us the common feelings of humanity)—shall we love the horse, the ox, the cat and the dog,—shall we cling with fond affection to the scenes of our childhood,—the house in which we have been reared,—the soil which our baby feet have trod,—aye, even an old chair or a crippled sofa, because of the holy memories which cling around it,—shallwe love all these, and yet charity, feeling, conscience, suddenly become extinct when, just at the point that we touch upon, humanity, all should become more vivid? Surely this is not in human nature. Strong as are the instincts of race—intensely as we are taught to feel that black men are not white men—and shudderingly as we turn from the impious and insane idea that would level in one sweeping equality of degradation what God has so distinctly severed, yet can we most acutely feel the human tie between us. We can weep with them, nurse them, and comfort them; we can learn, in this school of the affections, that

> "He prayeth best who loveth best
> All things, both great and small,
> For the dear God that loveth us,
> He made and loveth all."

By this exercise of charity, our whole being is the better attuned to love. The affections which pass from the child to the slave, descend still by gradation to the brute. The poor broken-down horse becomes dearer to us, and even the old ass, as we stroke his long ears, is from habit a friend. But, for heaven's pity! gentle ladies, be satisfied that we are kind to him, and do not insist that, because he cannot walk upright, we, for the sake of charity, equality and so forth, shall creep on all fours to keep him company. The white man may nurse and protect the negro—may pity the negro—may love the negro—but cannot consent to stoop to him. That position which is no degradation to the negro, because

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therein, as a really inferior man, he but conforms to nature, becomes to the white man a disgrace and a reproach.

We have done. Brethren and sisters, in conformity with the *Christian* tone of your articles we conclude ours. "More in sorrow than in anger," brother reviewer, have, to use your own words, been our remonstrances; and sisters of Stafford-house, of you we only beg, in Christian charity, that you will learn to know better both the white man and the negro of America. The chances are, that by so doing you will be the better able to strive with us towards that great aim which shall bring, as you (no doubt sincerely) pray, "Glory to God in the highest, on earth peace and good-will toward men."

ART. X.—COTTON AND THE COTTON TRADE, ONE THOUSAND EIGHT HUNDRED AND FIFTY-THREE.*

SUPPLY, DEMAND, CONSUMPTION, PRICES—PRODUCT OF THE EAST, EUROPEAN CONSUMPTION—PROBABLE CROP, 1852–3—PROBABLE PRICES—SLAVE LABOR—HOW THE PRICE OF COTTON HAS BEEN SUSTAINED WITH LARGE CROPS, ETC.; BY PROF. M'CAY, OF GEORGIA. FROM HUNT'S MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE FOR JANUARY: WITH ADDITIONAL NOTES BY G. G. HENRY, OF MOBILE.

THE course of the cotton trade during the past year has been steady and uniform. The season opened in September and October at rates a trifle higher than were realized in December, but from January forwards the market slowly advanced, until it is now a little higher than it was a year ago. The price at Liverpool of fair cotton, on the 1st of September, 1851, was 5½d., in October it was 5¼d., in January 5d., in March 5⅛d., in May 5¼d., in July 5¾d., and 6d. in September, 1852. The increased estimates of the crop depressed the price early in the season, but the immense consumption in every part of the world—in the United States, in England, and on the continent—encouraged the sellers to demand higher rates; and these have been maintained, in spite of the promise of another large crop for the ensuing year. The rates now current are not high, but they are above the average. For the thirteen years from 1840 to 1852, the whole American exports, (see Table I., at the end of this article,) amounting to nearly ten thousand millions of pounds, have been sold at an average price of eight-and-a-half cents. The price of good middling at Charleston is now, October 29th, 9½ cents. Instead of declining below the usual rates, the market has advanced, after receiving the largest crop ever produced, and with the prospect of another fully as large. What has maintained these prices? Are the causes temporary or permanent? Will they continue for the present year? or is their effect already past?

In attempting an answer to these questions, it may be remarked:—

1st. That the advance is not due to the fact that lower rates are not remunerative. From 1840 to 1844, when the average (see Table I.) was only eight cents, the stocks were constantly increasing. The production outran the consumption. This led to lower prices, which discouraged planting, and at the same time increased the demand of the manufacturers. From 1845 to 1849 the average price (see Table I.) was only 7½ cents. The surplus stocks then became small and prices advanced. Thus it appeared that an average of eight cents from year to year stimulated production, so that the supply exceeded the demand; while 7½ cents produced an opposite effect. The present rates, therefore, are more than sufficient to pay the planter a proper profit on his investment. And the general advance on land and negroes, throughout the Southern States, confirms the conclusion thus indicated by the rise and the decline of the stocks lying over from year to year. The present prices will not only pay the cost of production, but allow a handsome profit to the producer. But—

2d. The price has been kept up during the past year in part by a high rate of exchange. A rise of one per cent. in exchange is nearly equal to one-eighth of a cent in the price of cotton. The

* For previous years, see "Industrial Resources." Article, "Cotton."

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advance in exchange has been about two per cent. over the rates which were current before the discovery of California gold. We were then both exporters and importers of the precious metals. When we were sending them abroad, the price of exchange was the real par, *plus* the freight, insurance, and other expenses of exportation. When we were receiving them, the price was the real par, less these expenses. The higher rates were 111 or 112; the lowest 104 or 105. The average was about 108 for sixty-day bills. For the past two or three years we have always been exporters of gold, and the range of exchange has been from 108 to 112 at New-York; seldom going down to 108 or rising to 112, the average being about 110. This rise in exchange on account of our owning the gold mines of California is a permanent cause. Exchange will be hereafter the real par, *plus* the cost of exporting specie, and not the real par sometimes increased and sometimes decreased by the cost of exportation. This is equivalent to an advance of one-fourth of a cent in every pound of cotton, and for the year past it produced to the South not less than three millions of dollars. This, though a true cause for an advance in the price of cotton, is not sufficient to account for the whole rise. Another cause may probably be—

3d. The increased supply of the precious metals, which by expanding the currency tends to raise the money price of all other articles of merchandise. The large additions of gold to the currency of the world must, by inevitable necessity produce an effect of this kind. No arithmetic can calculate its exact amount in a short period of time; but that it is producing and must produce hereafter a slow, continued rise in all kinds of property no one can possibly doubt. Its first effect is to raise the price of silver; but it is impossible, while the present laws regulating the comparative value of silver and gold at the mints of the world continue unchanged, to raise the premium on silver beyond a very small amount. The effect of a slight advance is to push aside the silver and to introduce gold in its stead. Thus in our own domestic currency, silver is passing out of general circulation, and the coffers of the banks are filling with gold in its place. In France the coinage of gold has of late increased very largely; and so in other countries where both metals are a legal tender. This expansion of the metallic currency gives the banks an opportunity to increase their circulation, and thus the whole monetary medium, by which all the exchanges of commerce are made, becoming enlarged, the price of all other articles cannot fail to advance. It is impossible to say how large an influence this may have had in the recent high prices of cotton. It is not probably large, but that it is real no one can doubt.

4th. Another cause which has helped to sustain prices, and probably this is more potent than all the others together, is the successful despotism of Louis Napoleon in France, and of the crowned heads on the continent of Europe. The order that has reigned in Paris and throughout France, has given confidence to the merchant and the manufacturer, encouraged labor and industry, given security to property, and stimulated production and consumption in every department of business. Similar causes have been operating in the German and Italian States. The triumph of law and order over the revolutionists of 1848 was not complete until the present year. The iron heel of arbitrary power had crushed the external manifestations of resistance, but the murmurs of discontent were still audible, and the hopes of liberty were not yet extinguished. The present year has witnessed the end of all these things. Lombardy and Hungary kiss the rod of the oppressor. French soldiers preserve quiet at Rome. The patriots of Naples and Sicily are in prison or in exile. An Austrian army has quelled the disturbances in Baden, Hamburg, and Schleswig-Holstein. Revolution, anarchy, socialism, red-republicanism exist no more. Men have turned their attention to trade, to labor, to the pursuits of peace. Instead of political agitation, the people are employing themselves in new enterprises of industry, of commerce, and manufactures. The consumption of cotton in France has in consequence outrun any former year. Though stationary for many years past, the demand has suddenly awaked to new life. And so, also, in all the disturbed parts of Europe.

5th. The low price of grain in England, the successful working of free trade, and the prosperity in every department of manufactures, have stimu-

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lated the home demand in Great Britain to an extraordinary extent. The exports of cotton fabrics have been encouraged by the peace and prosperity of every part of the world. The overthrow of Rosas has opened the La Plata and its tributaries to British commerce. The outbreak in Caffraria is unimportant. The war in Burmah being out of India proper has no influence on trade. The rebellion in China does not disturb the exchanges at the free ports. So that universal peace may be said to prevail.

6th. In the United States the onward march of the cotton manufacture has again been resumed. The tariff of 1846, and the high price of the raw material, had checked the demand for the past three years, but the progress of our country in population, wealth, and enterprise, has surmounted these obstacles, and our course has again been forward.

Of these several causes, now enumerated to explain the fair price of cotton for the past year in the face of the abundant supply, there is not one which is not likely to operate for the coming year. We may, therefore, in considering the supply and demand for 1853, anticipate full average prices. They cannot be high, for the supply will be too large to permit any check in consumption. They cannot fall even to the average, for the stocks are low, and any further decline would stimulate the demand even beyond the present extraordinary amount.

The supply from the United States will probably exceed the large crop of 1852. The increased number of hands, the large breadth of land planted in cotton under the stimulus of good prices, the favorable character of the season, the fine weather for gathering the crop after the 1st of October, and the lateness of the frost, will tell strongly in favor of a large production. We have indeed had two severe storms, and with one of them a flood, but their injury has not been serious. The rot also has prevailed to an uncommon extent. The bollworm has been very general, and in some places severe. The caterpillar has done some harm, but beyond eating the leaves from the stalk, its ravages have been local and unimportant. These causes have not produced as much injury as was suffered last year.

This is epecially true in the Atlantic States. The excessive drought inflicted then more damage than all the opposing causes of the present season. The receipts at Charleston and Savannah will therefore exceed those of last year. They will also be increased by the extension of the Georgia rail-road farther to the West. Instead of 800,000 bales received last year, 900,000 may confidently be anticipated for 1853. In Florida, the storm of October 9th did such serious injury that we may expect a falling off in the receipts at Apalachicola and St. Mark's. More of this cotton will go to Savannah than usual; and the loss from the caterpillar and bollworm has been considerable. But the increased planting will go far to balance these deficiencies, and only a slight decline may be looked for. From Alabama, the receipts will be larger than last year. There was then too little rain, now there has been too much. The river lands produced finely last season, now it is the sandy uplands that are white with abundance. Only a small increase, however, may be anticipated. From the various districts that send their cotton to New-Orleans, the reports are contradictory. The Red River lands are doing very well; the parishes of Louisiana have been injured by the worm; the bottoms of the Mississippi have been too wet; the frost has kept off to a very late period in Tennessee; the planting has been large; the season for gathering long, and nearly the same amount will probably be received as for the past year. From Texas, the reports have been very favorable, and an increase of 25 per cent. may be looked for with confidence. The whole crop of American cotton for 1853 may be estimated (see Table II.) at 3,100,000 bales.

The imports from the East Indies have fallen off largely the last year on account of the moderate prices. This has been the uniform effect of a declining market, and we may look with confidence for the same result hereafter. There is in India an immense production of cotton for domestic use. It has been stated to be as large as the crop in the United States, but no satisfactory statistics have ever been collected to show its actual amount. It is, however, very large, and a high price in Europe attracts a larger portion for foreign export. It may then be brought further from the interior, and pay a larger charge for freight. On the con-

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trary, when the European rates decline, the inferior character of the cotton, the heavy expense for freight and insurance for the long voyage, leave but a small balance for the first cost of production, and the carriage from the interior to the seaport. The circle around the marts of export is thus narrowed, and the amount sent off decreases. Thus the high prices of 1850 and 1851 raised the English imports to 308,000 and 329,000 bales, against 182,000 in 1849. The moderate prices of the present year have caused the imports at Liverpool to fall off near 100,000 bales. (See Table III.) The low rates current in December and January last, diverted much of the East India cotton intended for export to China, and the European receipts have been small. No increase in these can be expected for 1853, since prices promise to be moderate, as they have been for the last season.

The imports into England from Egypt have increased largely for the past year. The largest amount ever before received was 82,000 bales in 1845. The average for the last three years has been 73,000. But for 1852 the receipts at Liverpool alone on the 8th of October had reached 142,000 bales. Less than usual has been carried to France, and so large an amount for England cannot be anticipated for the coming year, especially as the stocks in Liverpool of Egyptian cotton have advanced 50,000 bales. From Brazil and other places, the Liverpool receipts have increased slightly over last year; namely, from 90,000 to 108,000 bales; they are, however, less than for the two preceding years. The average from Egypt and Brazil for the last four years has been about 250,000 bales, (Table IV.,) and this amount may be looked for in 1853.

The total supply from all these places for 1853 may be estimated (Table V.,) at 3,550,000, or about the same as last year. This is 685,000 bales larger than for 1851, and 500,000 larger than for 1849. But, as the increased demand has taken off the whole of the larger production of 1852 at moderate prices, leaving the stocks now smaller than they have been for many years past, (Table VI.,) there is nothing in this large supply calculated to depress prices.

In considering the consumption, we notice everywhere a large increase, not only over last year, but over every former year. The amount consumed in Great Britain in 1851 was 1,663,000 bales, while the largest figures for any previous year were 1,590,000 bales. The deliveries to the trade this year at Liverpool, (see Table VII.,) where 95 per cent. of all the English sales are made, exceed those of last year more than 8,000 bags per week. As the factories are now well supplied, this excess will scarcely continue until the 31st of December. But the great regularity in the deliveries forbids any material decline. If the future purchases of the trade should not exceed those of the same period for last year, the consumption of Great Britain would reach 1,992,000 bales for 1852. Nor can we anticipate any less for 1853. The abundance of money, the favorable harvest, the great demand for labor, the high wages in all branches of manufactures, the advance in iron, the prosperity of the shipping interest, the large influx of Australian gold, the universal prevalence of peace in every part of the civilized world, the new machinery erected during the last year, the moderate rates which the raw material promises to bear, the low stocks of goods in the hands of the manufacturers, the large decline in the import of wool, and its consequent advance in price, and the general prosperity, both in the domestic and the export trade, authorize the expectation of a still larger consumption for 1853. There is not a single drawback to this anticipation, except the chapter of accidents; but it may be safest, as the increase for the last year has been so unprecedented, to look forward to a demand only as large as for the present year.

The consumption in France has increased as rapidly as in England. Our exports thither have been 120,000 bales larger than last year, and they have caused no accumulation of stocks either at Havre or at Marseilles. The deliveries at Havre alone have increased (see Table VIII.) more than 80,000 bales, and the amount of American cotton for the whole of France will probably exceed 400,000 bales, against 310,000 for 1851. As large a demand for 1853 may be confidently anticipated.

On the continent of Europe the consumption has been steadily increasing. Its progress is occasionally checked by high prices, but these are only tempo-

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rary disturbances in its onward march. In Russia, the imports for the three years from 1841 to 1843 were 337,000 cwts.; from 1844 to 1846 they were 584,000; and from 1847 to 1849 they were 1,065,000. In the German Zollverein, the protective duties they have imposed have given ample encouragement to the home manufacture of cotton goods. The English and American exports of raw cotton to these and other continental states have averaged (see Table IX.) 417,000 bales in 1847 and 1848; 522,000 in 1849 and 1850; and 582,000 in 1851 and 1852. For the incoming year they will almost certainly reach 600,000 bales, which is a trifle less than the amount for the present season.

The consumption of the United States has made a most sudden and rapid advance during the past year. For the three preceding years we had gone backwards. The high price of the raw material, and the imports of cotton goods at low duties from abroad, had given a check to our increasing demand, such as we never before had experienced. Hitherto our progress had been uniformly onward. The rapid increase in our population and wealth forbids any retrograde movement in the regular operations of business. Just as our railroads, our shipping, our crop of cotton, or of wheat, or of corn, make steady and invariable progress from year to year, so must our cotton manufactures. There will be at times a backward step in this movement, but it is temporary and brief. It is like the oscillation of a pendulum on a moving surface; the weight swings backwards and forwards, but the onward motion of the point of support makes it certain that the forward oscillations will more than compensate for the backward movements. The present prosperity of the country authorizes us to expect an advance even on the large consumption of the past season. The amount for 1852 has reached (see Table X.) 603,000 bales, and 625,000 may be anticipated for the coming year.

The whole demand for 1853 will then be estimated at 3,625,000 bales, (Table XI.,) which is 75,000 more than the anticipated supply. (Table V.) Now, as the stocks on hand (Table VI.) are at present very low, lower than they have been for years past, especially if the time for which they would supply the demand be considered, it would seem that prices must keep above their usual average. This has been 8½ cents (Table I.) at the seaports for the last thirteen years, and if the influence of a high rate of exchange and the abundance of gold are to be regarded as real causes elevating the money value of cotton in our markets, it would seem probable that the present prices (9½ cents at Charleston, October 29th, for good middling,) will be fully maintained, and that an advance rather than a decline may be expected.

TABLE I.—AMERICAN EXPORTS, VALUE AND PRICE.

From	Total exports in pounds.	Total value.	Price.
1840 to 1844	3,340,000,000	$267,200,000	8 cents.
1845 to 1849	3,788,000,000	284,400,000	7.5 "
1850 to 1851	1,563,000,000	184,300,000	11.8 "
1852 (estimated)	1,000,000,000	90,000,000	9 "
1840 to 1852	9,691,000,000	825,900,000	8.5 "

II.—CROP OF THE UNITED STATES.

	Receipts. 1851.	Receipts. 1852.	Estimate. 1853.
Texas bales	46,000	64,000	80,000
New-Orleans "	933,000	1,373,000	1,350,000
Mobile "	452,000	549,000	560,000
Florida "	181,000	189,000	175,000
Georgia "	322,000	326,000	400,000
South Carolina "	387,000	477,000	500,000
Other places "	34,000	37,000	35,000
Total	2,355,000	3,015,000	3,100,000

III.—IMPORTS FROM THE EAST INDIES.

Years.	Bales.	Remarks.
1830 to 1834 (average for five years)	81,000	Low prices.
1835 to 1839 " "	144,000	High prices.
1840 to 1844 " "	232,000	Chinese war.
1844 to 1849 " "	177,000	Peace and low prices.

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Years.	Bales.	Remarks.
1849, October 5, Liverpool only	69,000	Low prices.
1851, " 10, "	171,000	High prices.
1852, " 8, "	75,000	Moderate prices.
1849, whole year, Great Britain	182,000	Low prices.
1851, " "	329,000	High prices.
1852, " Estimate	200,000	Moderate prices.
1853, " "	200,000	Moderate prices.

IV.—ENGLISH IMPORTS FROM EGYPT, BRAZIL, ETC.

Years.	L'pool, about 1st Oct.	G. Britain, whole year.	Years.	L'pool, about 1st Oct.	G. Britain, whole year.
1846.....bales....	121,000.....	153,000	1850.....bales....	205,000.....	257,000
1847..... "	75,000.....	136,000	1851..... "	138,000.....	181,000
1848..... "	94,000.....	137,000	1852..... "	245,000.....	—
1849..... "	178,000.....	245,000	1853 (estimated). "	—	250,000

V.—SUPPLY OF 1851, AND ESTIMATE FOR 1852 AND 1853.

	1851.	1852.	1853.
Crop of the United States.....bales.....	2,355,000.....	3,015,000.....	3,100,000
English imports from East Indies..... "	329,000.....	200,000.....	200,000
English imports from other places..... "	181,000.....	300,000.....	250,000
Total from these sources.....	2,865,000.....	3,515,000.....	3,550,000

VI.—STOCKS AT RECENT DATES, CORRESPONDING TO THE CLOSE OF OUR YEAR.

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.
United States, September 1.....	155,000.....	168,000.....	128,000.....	91,000
Liverpool, October 8.....	582,000.....	545,000.....	550,000.....	507,000
Havre, October 6,.....	45,000.....	32,000.....	33,000.....	34,000
Total.....	782,000.....	745,000.....	711,000.....	632,000

VII.—DELIVERIES TO THE TRADE AT LIVERPOOL.

	1849.	1851.	Weekly consumption.	1852.	Weekly consumption.
May 1.....bales....	532,000.....	427,000.....	25,100.....	630,000.....	37,100
June 4 ..... "	688,000.....	619,000.....	28,100.....	870,000.....	39,600
July 2..... "	835,000.....	744,000.....	28,600	1,001,000.....	38,500
August 1..... "	993,000.....	887,000.....	29,600.....	1,156,000.....	38,500
September 3..... "	1,141,000.....	1,058,000.....	30,200.....	1,340,000.....	38,300
October 1..... " ...	1,220,000.....	1,167,000.....	29,900.....	1,475,000.....	37,800
" 8..... "	1,287,000.....	1,191,000.....	29,800.....	1,520,000.....	38,009
Whole year..... "	1,467,000.....	1,576,000.....	30,315.....	—	—
Do. Great Britain..... "	1,590,000.....	1,663,000.....	32,000 (est.)	2,000,000 (est.)	39,000

VIII.—DELIVERIES TO THE TRADE AT HAVRE.

	1850.		1851.		1852.	
	All kinds.	U. States.	All kinds.	U. States.	All kinds.	U. States.
September 1.....bales..	232,000.....	220,000.....	224,000.....	211,000.....	300,000.....	290,000
October 1..... " ..	250,000.....	238,000.....	246,000.....	234,000.....	327,000.....	316,000
Whole year..... " ..	306,000.....	294,000.....	312,000.....	302,000.....	—	—

IX.—CONSUMPTION OUT OF ENGLAND, FRANCE, AND UNITED STATES.

Years.	American exports.	English exports.	Total.	Years.	American exports.	English exports.	Total.
1847....bales..	169,090.....	215,000.....	384,000	1850.... " ..	194,000.....	272,000.....	466,000
1848.... " ..	255,000.....	192.000.....	447,000	1851.... " ..	269,000.....	269,000.....	538,000
1849.... " ..	322,000.....	254,000.....	577,000	1852.... " ..	354,000 Oct. 8,	203,000. about	625,000

X.—AMERICAN CONSUMPTION.

Years.	North of Richmond.	Av'ge for three years.	Increase per ct.	South of Richmond.	Total.
1847.....bales....	428,000.....	413,000.....	—	80,000.....	508,000
1848..... "	532,000.....	461,000.....	11+.....	90,000.....	622,000
1849..... "	518,000.....	493,000.....	7+.....	100,000.....	618,000
1850..... "	487,000.....	512,000.....	4+.....	100,000.....	587,000
1851..... "	404,000.....	470,000.....	8—.....	100,000.....	504,500
1852..... "	603,000.....	498,000.....	6+.....	100,000.....	703,000

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XI.—CONSUMPTION OF THE WORLD.

		Result for—		Estimate for—	
		1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Great Britain	bales...	1,514,000	1,663,000	2,000,000	2,000,000
United States	" ...	487,000	404,000	603,000	625,000
France (of United States)	" ...	300,000	310,000	400,000	400,000
Exports from Great Britain and United States	" ...	562,000	538,000	625,000	600,000
Total		2,863,000	2,915,000	3,628,000	3,625,000

We are indebted to Geo. G. Henry Esq., an intelligent merchant of Mobile, for the following, which we insert with pleasure, by way of addendum to Mr. McCay's valuable paper.

CONSUMPTION.—Notwithstanding the apprehensions of Liverpool Circular writers, on the 1st January last, that the consumption of cotton for 1852 would not exceed 1851—the year has so nearly passed away that I can furnish you a comparative table below of the two years, viz:

Consumption.	1851.	1852.
United States	404	603
Great Britain	1,662	2,050
France and the Continent	956	1,350
Total	3,022	4,000

It is now ascertained that this consumption of 4,000,000 of bales of cotton has actually taken place, and the manufacturers have never been so constantly engaged in filling orders, without their stocks of manufactured goods being permitted to accumulate as is now, and has been the case for the past year. The consumption has been largely greater than the outside estimates of manufacturers. With a crop in the U. S. exceeding greatly any we have ever gathered, and with advancing prices in the spring, bringing forward every bale that was made to market—together amounting to 3,015,000—we see that this enormous supply has not only been absolutely consumed, but at least 100,000 bales of the stocks on hand at the first of the year have been also. The stocks of cotton in Europe on the 1st January, 1853, will be swelled at least 100,000 bls., by that quantity more than usual having been shipped and received there of the crop of 1852—an item which in this connection is of great importance, and must be remembered.

Now, what are the prospects of consumption for 1853? The question is one of magnitude, but with the data before us, is susceptible of demonstration.

The published reports of manufacturing *statistics in* Great Britain, for 1851, show that the increase of manufacturing power brought into operation there, was much greater than for any previous year. They already publish that the additional power put into operation in 1852, very much exceeds that of 1851; that factories of great elegance and enormous magnitude are now going up in various localities, indicating of course the great profitableness of investments in that department, and the tendency of a farther great increase in 1853 over 1852.

Gratulating themselves, they state, that the improvements recently introduced into the hosiery manufacturer's machinery, does work which, costing two years ago 1s. 6d. (say 33c.), is now done for 2d. or 3¾c. Such is the condition and prospect in Great Britain. What is its condition on the continent? In the figures above, you see, for 1851 it was 956,000 bales. For this year it is estimated by English writers that it will be 1,350,000 bales, which is about 42 per cent. increase. This increase is enormous, but as I have always remarked in my circulars, the increase there is distined to be in a very great and constant ratio. In the enormous population of Germany, Italy, France, &c., the consumption is merely in its bud—I remarked in my circular of Nov. 18, 1851, "the consumption of the present year will be largely over that of any other in Great Britain, France, and on the continent, and the rapidity of its increase in Russia, Germany and the south of Europe, is highly encouraging. I may properly observe, then, that important as is the consumption of cotton in France and Germany, their peasantry have been, and are still relying on flax and hemp for a large proportion of their coarse clothes. Did the 35,000,000 of France, and the 70,000,000 of Germany consume cotton in the ratio that the population of the United States, Great Britain and In-

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dia does, the crop of the United States, if doubled, would not supply their demand." Well, the consumption in France, Germany and the rest of Europe, will increase in a ratio fully corresponding with our ability to supply them, and this *must continue*, from the fact that the cotton goods can be afforded cheaper than flax or hemp goods; the land which produces the hemp will, planted in potatoes or wheat, yield a more profitable crop, and the latter are raised with much less labor and expense.

We now pass to that of the U. States. The consumption of the past as compared with the former years is extraordinary, being, as you perceive, about 50 per cent. increase — we may properly inquire into the cause of this difference, and consider if it is likely to continue to increase. I gave, in my circular before alluded to, reasons for the falling off of so much, apparently from the preceding year, which was, that the constant and heavy exports of specie then going on had alarmed the Northern banks, as they held comparatively no specie, causing them to withhold their accustomed and essential accommodations. When the imports of California gold became uniform and established, and they were satisfied that the imports of gold would be greater than the exports, they relaxed and extended not only their usual but increased facilities to the manufacturing as well as other interests; hence the increased manufacture. But shall it be continued? When we regard the important emigration which has been annually flowing into the country, as well as our own naturally and rapidly increasing population,—that the entire country, especially west and south, are all in the highest degree prosperous, we must conclude that our own home trade must every year be augmented, with the increase of the country. In conclusion of this branch, it is plain to us of the South, that our consumption of cotton goods is very rapidly enlarging, and our manufacturers are fully engaged and steadily increasing their power and spindles. I anticipate further regular advance in this branch of the nation's enterprise, and that the consumption of 1853 will be progressive. We now turn to

THE CROP OR SUPPLY.—Small as were the stocks remaining in our ports, 1st September, 1851, we find this year they are diminished 37,000 bales; and we further find that the stocks in the interior towns, on the 1st Sept., were next to nothing, and that, instead of a considerable quantity being held back in the gin houses and on the plantations, as usual, the prices which cotton advanced to in the spring brought every bale forward into last year's receipts, and which are estimated, in the aggregate, to have been from 300,000 to 250,000 bales. While this quantity went to swell the receipts of last year, it will be borne in mind that the supply of cotton for this year loses it, and we must deduct, from the otherwise probable receipts of this year, that quantity.

What of our crop? After the extraordinary one of last year, and its excess over any one's calculations, I feel some reluctance in touching on it. I will simply say it is confessedly good—over an average crop. The receipts of the last five years were, for 1851-2, 3,015,000; 1850-1, 2,355,000; 1849-50, 2,097,000; 1848-9, 2,729,000; 1847-8, 2,348,000=12,544,000; or, an average of 2,509,000 bales per annum. The average of the preceding five years was 2,137,000 bales, and the increase per cent. per annum of the latter over the former period is 3½ per cent. —at which rate per cent. on the average would give a crop this year of 2,600,000 bales. I am, however, of opinion, the crop may be admitted to be as good in the aggregate this, as it was last year, but the probable amount of old and extra cotton sent forward, which would have fallen to this or some future year's receipts, must be deducted thus:

Receipts and crop of last year	3,015,000
Less extra cotton forwarded	265,000
Crop of 1852	2,750,000

With "the lights before me," I am doubtful if the crop of this year exceed that figure.

Were we governed alone by the receipts to this time at our ports, compared with last year's to the same time, this view would be palpably and at once contradicted, I confess; but what are the circumstances attending the receipts of the two years? They are these: that last year the waters tributary to New-Orleans, save the Mississippi itself, were unnavigable until in February; so unusually late did they continue down, that many of the most opulent firms

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there suspended payment. Our rivers also were late getting up. This year the waters tributary to New-Orleans have been up, from the time cotton was ready to be shipped; and as prices were favorable, every boat has been put into requisition to expedite the cotton to market, and the article has been sold, by the by, as it arrived. Our principal river, and from which about one half of our receipts are derived, has also been up; and with freight at $1 a bale, and full prices generally prevailing for cotton, it has come forward with unusual rapidity, and it has also been sold. But with reference to the crop on this river, the Alabama, what do we now see? As I said in my opening, the boats from that river are coming in with loads, like those of the months of May and June—and they have reduced the freights to stimulate the shipments.

But leaving these comparisons, I will briefly submit my estimates for the probable receipts at each point for this year. No old cotton to come in from the interior of Georgia and South Carolina, and their crops not quite so good as last year. I put the receipts of the

Atlantic states	at	750,000
Florida	"	170,000
Mobile	"	480,000
New-Orleans	"	1,250,000
Texas (a full crop)	"	100,000
Total		2,750,000

The frost was late or I would not put it so high. And considering the occurrence of very wet and bad weather for gathering of late, especially in Mississippi and Louisiana, this appears to me a very full, and fair estimate. Worms, rot and storms have injured the crop this year, else I admit it would have been larger. Contending with these enemies it is a heavy one if it reaches 2,750,000, and as I have sometimes over-estimated, I must insert here, I would not be surprised if the crop falls below this.

The supply from other countries, imported into Europe, we may put down the same as last year, and we may thus view the result.

Amount of stocks in the United States 1st September, 1851		91,000
Amount of American crop for 1851 and 1852 was	3,015,000	
Less cotton forwarded last year, usually held for subsequent periods	265,000	
	2,750,000	
Less this amount received in Europe previous to 1st Jan., 1853, more than usual of crops	100,000	2,650,000
Cotton imported into Europe from other countries		700,000
Stocks in Europe 1st Jan., 1853		500,000
Supply for 1853		3,941,000

Above I have given the consumption of 1852, which was, bales, 4,000,000; showing the supply of 1853, inclusive of the entire stocks in Europe and America, will be less than the consumption actually is and has been of 1852,—59,000.

This view may be questioned, as the results are arrived at by estimates of crops and estimates of consumption, but I will defend them under the proper head of—

PRICES.—Our views of prices are dependent on the extent of consumption and the crops or supply of cotton. I have above shown what the probable supply for 1853 would be, and with the entire stocks of cotton on hand in Europe and America, it will be less than the consumption of 1852 has been. Were the crops, I admit, fully ascertained today, to not exceed my figures, the price of middling cotton would be 12½ cents, with all the concurring favorable causes to place them at that. I think 2,750,000 bales will be the extent,—but let us admit for a moment that, independent of the lessened quantity to come to market this year, in consequence of the country being entirely stripped last year of cotton, the receipts *will* go to 3,000,000 bales. Well, so much the better for us; but will 3,000,000 bales weaken our position materially as to prices? The consumption we put down for Europe is the late published estimate of English papers, confirmed by circular statistics to the last dates—that of the United States has been authoritatively footed up. It may be contended, the manufacturers hold more stock than they are accustomed to. No one will contend they hold as *much* in proportion to the consumption as they held last year. Our prices current show that, on the 27th November, 100,000 bales were cleared for Europe since 1st September, more than had been to the same time last year, and this will be received in Europe and be counted in the stock, which, with this, will not exceed the quantity I put down, viz: 500,000 bales. I say if the crop should be 250,000 bales more than

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my estimate is, then there would be the extravagant stock in Europe and America of 191,000 bales on 1st Jan. 1854. To quibble about this matter will be ridiculous, as in any intelligent view it is presented, it is very *transparent* that the tendency to increased consumption for 1853, *must be checked by an insufficient supply*. What are our grounds supporting the conclusion, that the consumption of 1853 would be greater than 1552, were it not checked by this insufficiency of the raw material?

First, the peace of the world and the total absence of any exciting political questions any where. As, for example, the late decision by Parliament to maintain in Great Britain unrestricted trade, lops off all suspense there. Again, the establishment of the empire of France by unsurpassed unanimity, confirms not only the progress of prosperity and quiet in France, but secures it in all Europe. Further, the nomination by the Southern Rights Party of this country of Gen. Pierce for the office of President, and his unexampled majorities in the South, which, contrary to the apprehensions of some of his friends South, were quite as fully maintained in the North, having been elected with the dissenting voices of only four states, give confidence and encouragement to the people of this country, that the fanatics of the North are stripped of their poison, and that the admonition of Mr. Winthrop in Congress, that the South should prepare for emancipation, was the struggling and flickering twilight of abolition. The establishment and confirmation of repose among the people of the South produced by this election, I regard of momentous influence at the present time on the question of prices for our staple.

The fine harvests of Great Britain and the continent—the superabundance of money—the universally prosperous and progressive spirit of trade—concur to support prices. But we have only one more point we need to add. Besides the quantities of gold received in this country and Europe from California and Australia, produced there previous to 1st August last, it is estimated, by competent authorities, that the gold of California will reach, in the 12 months, from 1st August, $100,000,000; of Australia, for the same time, $200,000,000—making, for the 12 months, from the 1st of August last, $300,000,000.

Can there be a question for a moment of what will be the effect of this accession of the precious metals upon the price of a material of this nature? A material which cannot be supplied at any price, in a ratio commensurate with its consumption—and in the face of those multiplied accessions of gold from year to year, I consider, in the present position of all the great interests which are connected with cotton, that its consumption would not be checked at all, if prices for this crop were to go to 12½ cents, and *that prices will advance this year and continue good, I have no doubt.*

Permit me to say, in explanation of my allusion to abolitionism, what I consider to be the position now of the slavery question. Seeing the vigilant and constant inquiry the British Government is making as to the effects of emancipation in the South American and West India Colonies, and of slavery as it exists, and observing the pulsations of the English people respecting it, I am with other reasons conducted to this conclusion. Its enunciation may surprise many—nay, all; but I venture the assertion that it will be so:

That is, that the English Government will openly and practically repudiate the false position they took and now occupy in reference to it. A glance at the influence which effected emancipation in the English West Indies, and which has been outlived by time and experience, will detain us for a moment. The East India Company, anticipating the value of the productions of the West Indies and the Isthmus, for the preservation of their very distant possessions in the East, resolved on emancipation in the English West Indies. They promulgated arguments, that emancipation, while it would cause an additional demand for the labor of the white, would at the same time increase the productions of the country by the application of this intelligent labor, and that the trade of the mother country would be benefited, as the whites would consume more than the blacks; that the productions, being augmented in quantity, would be furnished to the mother country much lower than as it was; and that the treatment of slaves was horrible; and for miscellaneous and promiscuous reasons, emancipation ought to take place. The people of England have already experienced that all these arguments were

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false. And the pressure of the cotton question will cause them ere long to declare the trade in negroes to be as free and unrestricted as the trade now is in anything else. Will they consent, in this enlightened age, that the very Eden of America shall shed its uncultivated fruits in desert wilds? Assuredly, assuredly, not! They will themselves say, that it will be as wise, as humane, to reclaim from the wilds of Africa its savage race, and place them in a position to benefit themselves and the great family of man. There is an apathy on the subject of slavery elsewhere than amongst a portion of the English and a portion of the people of the North. However, with the opposition to it, in England removed, the trade will be reopened—and her citizens will largely and fully participate in it, in all its ramifications.

ART. XI.—COMMERCIAL PROGRESS.

COMMERCE OF NEW-YORK—IMMIGRATION INTO NEW-YORK, 1849–1852—BRITISH COMMERCE—BRITISH AND AMERICAN TRADE COMPARED—LOSSES ON THE LAKES, LAKE TRADE, ETC.

COMMERCE OF NEW-YORK.—The New-York papers of January the first, contain an immense mass of statistical information in regard to the commerce and trade of that city, from which we make the subjoined abstract, and will hereafter give the full statistics.

The total imports for 1852 amounted to $129,849,619, showing a decline of $1,511,959 on the imports of the previous year. The amount of specie imported was $2,408,225, against $2,049,543 in 1851, and $16,127,939 in 1850. The greatest excess of importations is on dry goods—it being over three millions of dollars. The total import of dry goods for the year, was $61,654,144, against 62,846,731 for 1851. The import of woolen goods for 1852 was over sixteen millions of dollars; of cotton goods over eleven millions; of silk goods twenty-two millions; of flax goods seven millions.

The *Journal of Commerce*, from which we glean the above facts, has also the following table showing the values of some of the leading items of imports for the last year:

Cigars	$1,917,118
Coffee	5,249,640
Hardware and cutlery	2,711,236
Hides	3,005,862
Lead	1,248,960
Liquors	1,923,929
Molasses	955,880
Wines	1,645,356
R. R. Iron	3,580,838
Steel	1,083,554
Sugar	8,926,690
Tea	6,398,104
Tobacco	703,387
Tin	3,045,320
Watches	2,183,047

The revenue from cash duties received at that port, show that a larger proportion of the dutiable imports have been made up of articles of luxury, which pay a high rate of duty.

The amount of cash duties received at New-York the past year, $31,332,737; in 1851, $31,081,263; in 1850, $28,047,439.

The total exports for the year were $71,523,609, of which $25.096,255 were in specie! The total exports of 1851 amounted to $87,653,849, of which $43,743,209 were in specie!! From this it will be seen that the excess of specie exported last year was $18,640,954, and that the shipments of both years were greatly to the advantage of foreign manufacturers.

The *Journal of Commerce*, commenting on these facts, says:

It will be seen that the falling off is altogether in specie, and that exclusive of this item, the exports have increased $2,517,714, although they are less than the very large amount reached in 1850. We annex a summary of the exports of specie and merchandise for three years:—

	Specie.	Merchandise.	Total.
1852	$25,096,255	$46,427,354	$71,523,609
1851	43,743,209	43,910,640	87,653,849
1850	9,982,948	50,136,300	60,119,248

The specie exported is as much domestic produce, as wheat or corn, and if more of it had been shipped, our home market would be in a more healthy condition. In this connection, we present a comparison of the quantity of some of the leading articles of produce shipped from this port for the last two years, the total value of which is included above under the head of merchandise. The

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shipments of flour have increased about 100,000 bbls., while the exports of wheat have been doubled. The shipments of corn have continued to decline for the last three years. Many other items of interest will be found in the comparison.

There were exported from New-York in 1852, 336,679 bales of cotton against 289,645 bales the previous year; and 26,113 tierces rice against 29,100. The exports of domestic cotton goods amounted to 54,692 packages against 24,006 in 1849, showing a heavy increase. The amount of gold dust entered from California for the year is $37,363,569, which is much less than was reported at the mint.

The total number of steamships which arrived during the year was 206. Ships 956, barks 860, brigs 1253, galliots 2, schooners 544, yachts 1. Total 3,822. The number of schooners reported by Capt. Lunt of the Sandy Hook lightship, as having passed in sight of that ship, inward bound, is 1132.

IMMIGRATION FOR THE YEAR 1852.—The total number of arrivals at the port of New-York from foreign countries during the year 1852, adds up 363,556. Of these 39,052 are ascertained to have been American citizens, returning home from travel abroad. We annex a table giving a comparative view of the immigration at this port during the four years past:

Nations.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.
Ireland	112,587..	116,542..	163,256..	117,537
Germany	55,705..	45,407..	69,883..	118,126
England	28,321..	28,125..	28,551..	31,275
Scotland	8,840..	6,771..	7,302..	7,640
Wales	1,782..	1,520..	2,189..	2,531
France	2,683..	3,398..	6,064..	8,718
Spain	214..	257..	278..	450
Switzerland	1,405..	2,361..	4,499..	6,455
Holland	2,447..	1,174..	1,798..	1,323
Norway	3,300..	3,150..	2,112..	1,389
Sweden	1,007..	1,110..	872..	2,034
Denmark	159..	90..	229..	156
Italy	602..	475..	618..	358
Portugal	287..	55..	26..	29
Belgium	118..	230..	475..	82
West Indies	419..	564..	575..	265
Nova Scotia	151..	161..	81..	73
Sardinia	172..	165..	98..	69
South America	38..	103..	121..	120
Canada	59..	61..	50..	48
China	9..	11..	9..	14
Sicily	21..	58..	11..	42
Mexico	22..	41..	42..	22
Russia	38..	18..	23..	38
East Indies	34..	92..	10..	13
Turkey	6..	5..	4..	4
Greece	6..	3..	1..	6
Poland	133..	183..	142..	186
Arabia	8..	— ..	— ..	—
Total	230,608..	212,896..	239,601..	305,504

In a late number of the Economist, edited by that able commercial writer, Thomas P. Kettell, of New-York, we find an admirable paper upon the growth of British trade. We extract the following table:—

DECLARED VALUE OF BRITISH PRODUCE EXPORTED TO DIFFERENT PARTS OF THE WORLD.

Countries.	1814.	1820.	1830.	1836.	1842.	1851.
Russia	£1,705,954	2,672,214	1,191,565	1,740,433	1,885,953	1,289,704
Sweden	523,313	33,410	57,127	113,308	199,313	189,319
Norway	56,154	66,424	58,580	79,469	134,794	257,814
Denmark	183,912	164,277	92,294	91,302	194,304	445,500
Prussia	1,229,756	492,409	192,812	148,722	376,151	503,531
Germany	6,429,524	6,110,356	3,642,952	4,456,729	6,202,700	7,191,666
Holland	2,514,120	1,118,108	2,082,536	2,509,622	3,573,362	3,542,673
Belgium	1,461,036	632,964		839,276	1,099,490	984,501
France	579,811	390,744	602,688	1,591,381	3,193,939	2,028,463
Total, North of Europe	£14,693,580	11,680,906	7,320,654	11,570,342	16,330,416	16,433,174
Portugal	3,249,356	1,668,130	1,056,589	1,191,676	1,012,764	1,150,232
Spain	3,560,379	626,194	631,130	476,446	377,168	1,065,320
Italy	2,328,792	2,441,958	2,490,376	2,886,466	2,494,197	3,921,025
Turkey	153,903	551,792	888,654	1,762,441	1,489,826	2,441,951
Total, South of Europe	£9,292,630	5,288,074	5,066,749	6,317,029	5,373,955	8,578,528
Gibraltar	1,659,776	1,191,096	367,285	726,411	937,719	481,266
Malta and Ionian	896,978	269,698	185,402	247,338	372,904	524,539
Jersey	326,627	296,603	324,634	318 609	364,350	613,724
West Coast of Africa	113,178	145,117	234,768	467,186	459,685	658,934
New South Wales	6,068	117,123	398,471	835,637	958,953	2,868,151
British North America	4,399,753	1,559,104	2,089,327	2,732,291	2,333,525	3,813,707
Cape of Good Hope	259,034	248,182	296,676	482,315	369,076	752,393
West Indies	7,029,699	4,197,161	2,581,949	3,786,433	2,591,425	2,433,665
China	—	—	3,387,412	2,326,388	969,381	2,161,268
Mauritius	2,324,349	3,693,168	118,475	260,855	244,923	232,955
East India Comp.	—	—	—	4,285,829	5,169,208	7,806,596
Total to Colonies	£15,025,456	11,717,252	10,004,399	15,469,312	14,770,097	22,346,698
North of Europe	14,693,580	11,680,906	7,320,654	11,570,542	16,830,416	16,433,174
South of Europe	9,292,630	5,288,074	5,066,749	6,317,029	5,373,955	8,578,528
All others	6,482,558	7,738,420	14,772,570	19,937,287	10,404,555	27,091,322
Grand Total	£45,494,219	36,424,652	37,164,372	53,293,979	47,381,023	74,449·712

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COMPARATIVE GROWTH OF BRITISH AND AMERICAN TRADE.

EXPORTS OF GREAT BRITAIN TO CHIEF COUNTRIES, AND OF THE UNITED STATES TO THE SAME.

To what Countries.	1842. From Great Britain.	1842. From U. States.	1851. From Great Britain.	1851. From U. States.
Russia, Northern Ports	£1,885,953	$316,026	£1,157,543	$1,465,704
Ports within the Black Sea			132,161	
Sweden	199,313	238,948	189,319	760,800
Norway	135,704		257,814	
Denmark, including Iceland	194,304	70,766	445,500	92,257
Prussia	376,651	149,141	503,531	80,469
Mecklenburg Schwerin			33,153	—
Hanover			227,288	—
Oldenburg and Kniphausen	6,202,700	3,814,994	10,909	—
Hanseatic Towns			6,920,078	5,405,956
Heligoland			238	—
Holland	3,573,362	3,236,338	3,542,673	1,911,115
Belgium	1,099,490	1,434,038	984,501	2,709,333
Channel Islands	364,350	—	613,724	—
France	3,193,939	17,563,589	2,028,463	25,660,925
Portugal proper	947,855	72,723	1,048,356	167,342
Azores	39,862	49,183	59,935	20,240
Madeira	25,047	43,054	41,941	94,589
Spain, Cont'tal and Belearic Isles	322,614	555,120	1,015,493	5,416,044
Canary Islands	54,554	12,723	49,827	13,540
Gibraltar	937,719	466,937	481,266	177,904
Italy, with adjacent coast of the Adriatic Islands, viz:				
Sardinian Territories		40,208	706,108	310,838
Duchy of Tuscany		1,541,847	869,131	1,736,834
Papal Territories	2,494,197	515,577	266,633	
Naples and Sicily		237,861	1,266,211	41,743
Austrian Territories		748,139	812,942	2,265,573
Malta and Gozo	289,304	11,644	301,443	64,061
Ionian Islands	83,600	—	223,096	—
Kingdom of Greece	17,538	—	220,592	—
Turkish Dominions, (exclusive of Wallachia, Moldavia, Syria and Egypt)	1,472,288	125,521	1,937,011	162,204
Wallachia and Moldavia			284,348	—
Syria and Palestine	375,551	—	359,871	—
Egypt, Ports on the Mediterranean	221,003	—	968,729	—
Tunis		—	7,549	—
Algeria	44,952	—	6,917	—
Morocco		—	40,783	—
Western coast of Africa	459,685	472,841	658,934	1,245,361
British Possessions in South Africa	369,706	—	752,393	161,891
Eastern coast of Africa	—	—	224	—
African Ports on the Red Sea	262	—	224	—
Cape Verd Islands	1,480	103,557	788	57,476
Ascension and St. Helena	18,675	—	30,555	—
Mauritius	244,922	—	232,955	16,882
Aden	5,888	—	17,184	—
Continental India, with contiguous Islands, viz.:				
British Territories	5,169,208	399,979	7,806,596	512,906
French Possessions	—	—	443	—
Islands of the Indian Seas, viz:				
Samatra			337	
Java	306,132	85,578	759,362	204,898
Philippine Islands	47,019	235,732	202,585	125,544
Celebes	—	—	315	—
China	969,381	737,509	2,161,268	2,155,945
British Settlements in Australia	916,164	52,651	2,807,356	—
South Sea Islands	42,788	128,856	60,795	601,146
British North America	2,333,525	5,950,143	3,813,707	9,060,387
British West India Islands and British Guiana	2,591,425	3,319,337	2,201,032	4,484,114
Honduras (British Settlements)	—	127,339	232,633	213,806
Foreign West India Islands, viz.:				
Cuba		4,197,468	1,164,177	5,239,276
Porto Rico		610,813	63,353	961,410
Guadaloupe		1,173,905	135	
Martinique	711,938	—	1,642	
Curacoa		—	43,096	979,623
St. Croix		101,055	5,086	
St. Thomas		—	572,721	
Dutch Guiana		—	2,130	452,389
Hayti	141,896	844,452	239,146	1,679,372
United States of America	3,535,881	—	14,362,977	—
Mexico	374,969	969,371	577,901	577,901

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To what Countries.	1842 From Great Britain.	1842 From U. States.	1851 From Great Britain.	1851 From U. States.
Central America		46,649	319,814	223,302
New Grenada	231,711	51,363	319,889	2,507,701
Venezuela		499,780	349,701	854,779
Ecuador		—	54,099	—
Brazil	1,756,805	2,225,571	3,518,664	3,128,956
Oriental Republic of Uruguay	969,791	201,444	218,078	32,711
Buenos Ayres		447,356	458,329	659,852
Chili	950,466	1,270,941	1,181,837	1,608,877
Peru	684,313	—	1,208,253	249,760
Falkland Islands	384	—	2,841	—
Russian Settlements on the North-West Coast of America	—	—	—	—
Greenland and Davis's Straits	—	—	282	—
Great Britain	—	38,234,511	—	109,531,612
Elsewhere	—	—	—	106,782
Total declared value	£47,381,023	$92,969,996	£74,448,722	$196,689,718

LOSSES ON THE LAKES AND ON WESTERN RIVERS—LAKE TRADE, ETC.—*Losses on the Lakes in* 1852.—The Buffalo *Morning Express*, of a recent date, contains two columns of details of marine losses on the Lakes during the year 1852, of which the following is a recapitulation:—

Whole amount of loss by collisions			$261,950
" " by other casualties			730,709
The amount of loss by steam vessels has been			633,620
" " by sail " has been			359,039
" " by American " has been			907,487
" " by British " has been			85,172
Amount of loss on Lake Ontario	by steam	$49.350	
" " "	by sail	29,589	78,939
" " Lake Erie	by steam	543,470	
" " "	by sail	197,880	741,300
" " Lake Huron	by steam	16,000	
" " "	by sail	53,600	69,600
" " Lake Michigan	by steam	800	
" " "	by sail	78,020	78,820
" " Lake Superior	by steam	24,000	24,000

Of the two hundred and fifty-nine disasters here detailed, seven occurred in the month of April, nineteen in May, twenty-four in June, fifteen in July, sixteen in August, twenty-one in September, twenty-seven in October, eighty-five in November, (55 in one gale of the 11th and 12th,) and fifteen in December. Six steamers, seven propellers, and thirty-five sail vessels, have gone out of existence entirely. In many instances the amount of losses as above stated have been matters of estimate, as many must necessarily be; but much pains and care have been taken to procure, in each case, the opinion of competent men who were most familiar with the circumstances. Regarding the loss of life by the steamer *Atlantic*, there are various opinions—her agents and proprietors contending it not to exceed one hundred and fifty, while many who were somewhat familiar with the circumstances, set it as high as three hundred, and some even higher.

The loss of property is large, being some $260,000 greater than any previous year. The loss of life is also large. Capt. R. puts it at 296, which is probably considerably under the actual number. Many persons, who were competent to judge, put the number lost on the *Atlantic* as high as 300.

The statement will be found of great interest to all those engaged in commercial transactions, and will be found more accurate than any previous statement.

The foreign commerce of our Lake ports, says the *North American*, is of much more importance than is generally supposed. Of course it is the result of a growing intercourse with the Canadian provinces; but were the navigation of the St. Lawrence opened to our commerce, it is an ascertained fact that the Lake ports are ready and eager to carry on a direct commerce with Europe. In illustration of the importance already acquired by the foreign trade of these ports, the Sandusky *Register* compiles from the United States Treasury documents the following statement of the amount of duties received for the years ending July 1st:

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	1850–51.	1851–52.
Buffalo, N.Y.	$67,000	$91,000
Oswego, N.Y.	91,000	87,000
Sandusky, Ohio	20,000	82,000
Cleveland, Ohio	55,000	85,000
Plattsburg, Ohio	49.000	61,000
Detroit, Michigan	28,300	34,000
Niagara, N.Y	17,000	23,000
Ogdensburg, N.Y.	20,000	21,000
Cape Vincent, N Y.	6,300	19,000
Sackett's Harbor, N.Y.	6,000	19,000
Chicago, Ill.	5,000	11,000
Total	$376,000	$542,000

This shows an increase of $106,000, or about 44 per cent. in one year, and but eleven ports are given, the less important ones being omitted. While the foreign commerce of these ports thus increased, the commerce of the Atlantic ports decreased very materially, as is shown by the fact that for the years 1850–51 the aggregate duties in the whole one hundred and three ports of entry in the United States was $48,788,000 and in the succeeding year it was $47,320,326. There are about fourteen ports in the United States at which a larger amount of duties is collected annually than at Buffalo, Oswego, Cleveland, or Sandusky. These are New-York, Boston, Philadelphia, New-Orleans, San Francisco, Baltimore, Charleston, St. Louis, Portland, Cincinnati, Salem, Mobile, and New Haven.

The Louisville *Courier* has the following list of steamboat and other disasters on the western waters during the past year—1852.* The list is formidable and disastrous enough, and embraces 78 steamboats, 4 barges, 73 coal boats, 32 salt boats, and four other flatboats. The greater number of the flatboats were destroyed by the breaking up of the ice last winter. The number of lives lost is upwards of four hundred. The *Courier* is not certain that the list is complete, but has compiled it from the best sources at its command.

Names, and how lost.	Amount insured and lost.	Lives lost.	Where lost.
Jewess.....snagged..	2,75	–	St. Louis
Dunkirk .....snag..	—	–	Turkey I.
Gen. Lane.....snag..	loss	–	St Francis r.
Consignee.....snag..	18,000	–	C. Girardeau
Geo. Washingt'n..explo..	—	20.	Grand G.
Martha Washington—burned..	total..	16.	Island 65
Tippah.....burned..	total..	1.	Mississippi
Romeo .....snag..	10,000..	–	Mississippi
Pitser Miller.....explo..	—	–	White R.
De Witt Clinton..snag..	7,000..	–	Memphis
Washington.....sunk..	total..	3.	Ohio
Peru.....snag..	—	–	Wheeling
Oswego .....snag..	—	–	Chester
May Queen.....snag..	—	30.	Arkansas R.

*For previous years see De Bow's Industrial Resources.

Names, and how lost.	Amount insured and lost.	Lives lost.	Where lost.
Caddo.....snag..	—	–	N.-Orleans
Trustee.....collapsed..	total..	–	Arkansas R.
Jefferson.....collapsed..	—	–	Little Rock
Mary Kingston...explo..	—	10.	Poverty P't
Violet .....snag..	—	–	Granada
Elite .....snag..	—	–	Smithfield
Logan .....snag..	8,000..	–	Green R.
Glaucus.....burned..	5,000..	5.	Mississippi
Ionian.....snag..	17,000..	–	Grand Rap.
Pocahontas.....collap..	—	–	Arkansas R.
Grampus .....snag..	—	–	Hatchie R.
Alton .....snag..	total..	–	Missouri R.
Glencoe.....explo..	total..	50.	St. Louis
Redstone.....explo..	total..	40.	Ohio
Saluda.....explo..	total..	100.	Missouri
Robt. Rogers...collis'n..	—	–	Cumb'rland
Col. King.....explo..	—	–	Tennessee R
Choctaw .....snag..	—	10.	Shreveport
Prairie State.....explo.	—	–	Pekin, Ill.
Pontiac, No. 2....snag..	—	20.	Missouri R.
Chickasaw.....collis'n..	—	–	French I.
Beacon .....snag..	—	–	Ponchartr'n
Mammoth Cave..col'n..	—	–	Mississippi
Umpire.....snag..	—	–	Arkansas R.
Peytona, No. 2.capsiz'd..	total..	–	Cincinnati
Hail Columbia....coll'n..	total..	–	Beaver
Banner.....snag..	5,000..	–	Memphis
Lucy Robinson....snag..	15,000..	50.	Mississippi
St. James'.....explo..	—	–	Mississippi
Timour, No. 2 ...snag..	—	–	Missouri R.
Sea Gull.....snag..	—	–	Ohio
Lamartine.....snag..	—	40.	Missouri R.
Dr. Franklin.....explo..	total..	–	Mississippi
Pilot No. 2.....snag..	—	–	Ohio R.
Indian Queen.....snag..	total..	4.	Mississippi
May Queen.....snag..	total..	–	Arkansas R.
Swan.....aground..	total..	–	Dog River
Pincktona.....wrecked..	16,000..	–	Montgomery
Pawnee .....snag..	total..	–	Cow Island
Danube.....snag..	—	–	Fever River
Anna .....snag..	total..	–	Atchafalaya
D. A. Given..... snag..	total..	–	Mississippi
Naniope.....snag..	total..	–	Red River
Shelby .....snag..	8,000..	–	Selena
Midas.....raised..	—	–	Island 16
H. D. Bacon....raised..	—	–	Mississippi
Tuscumbia.... ..raised..	—	–	Mississippi
Financier.....explo..	—	–	Illinois R.
Connecticut .....snag..	—	–	Cow Island
Anne Linnington..snag..	3,000..	–	Atlas Island
Dan Canvass.....snag..	—	15.	Ohio River
Buckeye Belle....explo..	total..	–	Marietta
Royal Arch.....snag..raised..		–	Buffington I.
Tuscarora.....snag..	total..	–	Buffington I.
Envoy .....collis'n..raised..		–	Buffington I.
Arroroline.....snag .	total..	–	Peyton I.
Geneva .....explo..	total..	3.	Missouri
Cleopatra.....burned..	total..	5.	Black River
Susquehanna.....snag..	—	–	Cumb'rland
Fleetwood.....snag..	—	–	Wabash
Magnet.....explo..	total..	11.	Grand View
Western World....col..	total..	25.	Mississippi
R. M. Patton.....col..raised..		–	Louisville
Tempest.....snag..raised..		–	——

We are indebted to our friend and correspondent, J. W. Scott of Toledo, for the following extract of a letter upon the growth of the *Great North-West:*

BREADSTUFFS RECEIVED AT TOLEDO, CHICAGO, AND ST. LOUIS, 1852:

	Toledo.	Chicago.	St. Louis.
Flour.....bbls..	383,877...	117,100...	131,333
Wheat.....bush..	2,402,605...	715,425...	2,372,126
Corn..... " ..	4,059,209...	3,005,710...	1,015,506

Reducing the flour to bushels, at 5 the barrel, the comparison will be as follows:

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	Toledo.	Chicago.	St. Louis.
Bushels	8,381,199	4,306,635	4,044,297

Toledo received *by canal*, to the 14th November, 260,898 bbls. flour, 1,954,718 bushels wheat, 3,878,047 bushels corn; and by rail-road, to 31st December, 122,979 barrels flour, 447,887 bushels wheat, 181,162 bushels corn. Including what reached Toledo by canal after 14th Nov., and by wagon during the year, the receipt of these three articles at that city in 1852 could scarcely be less than *eight millions and three quarters* of bushels.

New-York exported to all foreign countries, from 1st January to 20th November, 1852, 1,226,298 barrels flour, 2,678,457 bushels of wheat and 745,180 bushels of corn, amounting in all, counting the flour at 5 bushels the barrel, to 9,555,126 bushels.

Tonnage of canal freight to and from Albany in 1852	1,196,341
Tonnage of canal freight to and from Toledo in 1852	350,100

The canals which have their terminus at Toledo will, on the opening of navigation, next spring, have an aggregate length of seven hundred miles. For the last seven years, the canal business, at Toledo, has had an average increase equal to its regular duplication in every period of three years. The same ratio of increase during the next seven years would swell its business to nearly that at Albany the past year.

On the 1st January, 1853, an enumeration made the population of Toledo 6,412; and the number of buildings erected, in 1852, 200.

A very small city for so large a business.

ART. XII.—INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

CENTRAL ROAD OF TEXAS—ATLANTIC AND GULF ROAD—VICKSBURG AND TEXAS ROAD—SAN ANTONIO ROAD—RAIL-ROADS OF ARKANSAS—RAIL-ROADS OF MISSOURI—RISE IN RAIL-ROAD IRON—BROADWAY, NEW-YORK, RAIL-ROAD—RAIL-ROADS OF PENNSYLVANIA.

We are indebted to Gen. Memucan Hunt, President of the *Central Rail-road Company of Texas*, for a pamphlet of documents concerning this company which is very interesting. Gen. Hunt has procured the promised aid of northern capitalists, and it is only necessary for Texas to increase her land donations to the road, and for the proprietors on the route to do the same, for these capitalists at once to enter upon the work. One of the engineers for the survey has already arrived in Texas. This is the only road chartered which extends from the island of Galveston, and its termination is to be on Red River in either Lamar, Fannin, or Grayson county, a distance of 450 miles. We hope to refer to this road again.

"Messrs. Screven and Roberts, Directors of the *Atlantic and Gulf Road*," says the Savannah Republican, "went into the street, for a few hours, yesterday, beginning at midday, for the purpose of collecting subscriptions for the road hence to Pensacola via Albany. Every one to whom application was made subscribed, with one or two exceptions. This circumstance we regard as expressive of a resolute determination to carry the work through. The result of their labors, which will be resumed this morning, is, that the sum of one hundred and two thousand dollars was put down. Verily, old Savannah goes ahead of all other places we ever read of, for taking rail-road stock."

It is stated that some citizens of Liberty remarked at the late celebration that that county would put down at least $100,000, and a wealthy gentleman residing on the route has, we are assured, signified his intention of subscribing $20,000. All the present indications seem to be favorable.

The people of North Louisiana are evincing great interest in the *Vicksburg, Louisiana and Texas Road.* It will pass through one of the wealthiest portions of our state and one the least accessible to market, producing 120,000 bales of cotton, and having $65,000,000 of taxable property. The Texas portion of the road is equally inviting. It has been surveyed and located from Vicksburg to Monroe and also from Shreveport to Marshall. Only four miles of overflowed country intervenes be-

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tween Vicksburg and Monroe. Individuals have already taken $800,000 in stock, and $200,000 more is expected. Texas has granted a liberal charter (with a donation of 5,000 acres per mile) from the Louisiana line to El Paso, via Austin. We believe this road to be important to the interests of New-Orleans, and that it will become a great thoroughfare of Texas' freights and travel.

The question so much mooted in Texas of the selection of a Gulf terminus for the *San Antonio Road* has, we understand, been decided in favor of Saluria at a late meeting of the Board of Directors, held at San Antonio. The news of the decision was received here a few days since by a gentleman who was present at the meeting, and may be relied upon for authenticity. The following gentlemen constituted the Board, all of whom, with the exception of one, voted for Saluria:

Enoch Jones, S. A. Maverick, Thos. Devine, Chas. King, Jno. T. McLeod, J. T. Dashiel, R. G. Campbell, Wm. Vance, J. R. Sweet, J. J. Giddings, C. Riotte, A. H. Jones, Dr. R. Peebles, J. A. Paschall, F. Gilbeau, G. T. Howard, and G. T. Gardiner.

We are informed that the citizens of Indianola and Lavaca are conciliated to the selection of that point for the terminus, on the ground that the road is to pass immediately through or near those two places, and that each have agreed to build certain sections of the road. The work is to be commenced immediately, from Powder Horn and Lavaca respectively, the operations to extend upwards on the line from each place. The work will also be commenced at Saluria in due time, as well as at San Antonio. The company have some $400,000 funds in hand already, and we have good reason to believe that the road will be commenced immediately in good earnest. We understand that the route contemplated for the road, will strike the Guadaloupe some seventy-five miles above Clinton.

From the last most able message of the Governor, we extract the following in regard to the *internal improvement policy of Arkansas.*

"Let a point be selected for the Pacific road free from all objections, both of a political and physical character. That point is MEMPHIS, in Tennessee, situate midway between the contending cities —New-Orleans in the south, and St. Louis in the north; free from the objections attaching to both; neither north nor south, but a point at which the fair-haired sons of the north can meet their sun-burnt brothers of the South, and, seated side by side, westward take their way. In addition to this, Memphis seems already to have been selected, by general consent, as the point on the Mississippi at which all the rail-roads, starting from the Atlantic states, tending westward, both from the north and south, converge. When the middle and New England states start their thousands westward, by means of numerous railroads already completed, they reach Cincinnati, thence to Louisville, and upon the cars of the Louisville and Memphis road, now in process of construction, will be set down upon the banks of the mighty Mississippi, at a point opposite the centre of our state. So with the southern traveler, from Virginia, the Carolinas and Georgia, by means of the Charleston and Chattanooga roads, now being completed to Memphis, the same point will be reached. Alabama and Mississippi are rapidly securing their connection with the same point. Is it probable that this vast system of railroads is destined to stop here? I cannot think so; unless, by the criminal neglect of our most important interests and duties, we fail to afford that aid and encouragement necessary to insure its extension westward, over our own soil, to its ultimate destination on the Pacific.

"It cannot be disguised, however, that whatever may be the objections both to St. Louis and New-Orleans, as crossing-points on the Mississippi river, for the Great Western railroad, they are struggling for it with that power and energy which is ever prompted by a spirit of self-preservation, and with that prospect of success, which results from a judicious combination of wealth, enterprise and energy.

"There can be no doubt, that the St. Louis and New-Orleans road, although of recent conception, will very soon claim a large share of public attention; and surely its importance to Arkansas can only be second to the central railroad, and in its immediate and local results, not even to that. Missouri has already commenced, and has now under contract, a considerable portion of a

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railroad extending westward from St. Louis, and designed to compete for the position of the Great National Road to the Pacific. She proposes to extend a branch to the line dividing Missouri and Arkansas, provided we will carry it across our territory, to unite with a similar branch, emanating from the New-Orleans and Opelousas road, west, also intended for the Pacific coast.

"If these states, upon our northern and southern boundaries, shall complete roads from these two great and growing commercial points, to our northern and southern boundaries, surely Arkansas, with the ample resources which I have shown her to possess, will unite in this so much desired work. The construction of this road will afford facilities to the northern portion of the state which are so much needed, as well as to the wealthy cotton-growing counties of the south, through which it will pass, and bring the whole state, within a day's travel of New-Orleans on the south, and St. Louis on the north. How far the construction of this road will supersede the necessity of the Gaines' Landing Road, is not for me to determine, but the construction of one will in no wise operate against the other."

The *St. Louis Republican*, in speculating upon the future of that city, points out the duties of Missouri towards her great metropolis, and sums up the rail-road movements of which she is or ought to be the centre.

First. The road from Alton to Chicago, and thence a continuation up Lake Michigan to Fond du Lac, in Wisconsin, with projected roads beyond to Lake Superior.

Second. A road by Terre Haute and Indianapolis to the shores of Lake Erie, and thence by the New-York and Erie Rail-road and Albany and Binghamton Rail-road to New-York and Boston; and a connection from this road by the west end of Lake Erie to the north shore of that lake, and by Niagara again to Boston—or by Toronto to the St. Lawrence and to Portland.

Third. The Ohio and Mississippi Rail-road to Cincinnati, and thence by Pittsburgh, and the Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road to Philadelphia and Baltimore. From this route will ultimately connect a route through Louisville to Richmond and Norfolk.

Fourth. By an extension of the Bellefville road to near the mouth of the Ohio, a direct connection through Nashville with Charleston and Savannah. This also making a connection by central roads with Mobile and New-Orleans.

Above is found a system of roads projected, and, to a considerable extent, constructed, directly connecting St. Louis with Lake Superior, and with the Atlantic coast, at Portland, at Boston, at New-York, at Philadelphia, at Baltimore, at Norfolk, at Charleston and at Savannah, and with the Gulf of Mexico at Mobile and at New-Orleans—and all these roads to the east being built without any important aid from St. Louis.

St. Louis is bound to build roads westward. For every main road that comes from the east, a road must be built to the west; and hence, independent of the great object of developing the wealth of the state, springs the necessity of a system of rail-roads for Missouri.

Before the Legislature, a system of roads was presented, looking north to Minnesota, west to the Pacific, southwest to the Gulf of Mexico and Texas, and south to New-Orleans, starting from St. Louis; and considering the importance of the shortest route for each, this system was marked as follows:—

First. The North Missouri Rail-road—starting from St. Louis, and passing by St. Charles up the dividing ridge, between the Missouri and the Mississippi rivers, to the north line of the state—to be continued to Minnesota.

Second. The Pacific Rail-road—from St. Louis through Gray's Gap, up the Missouri to Jefferson City, and thence by the shortest and best route to the western line at the mouth of the Kansas—to be continued to the Pacific.

Third. The Southwest Missouri Rail-road—starting from the Pacific Rail-road near the western edge of St. Louis county, and thence by Bourbeuse Ridge, and Osage and Gasconade Ridge, to the southwest corner of the state—to be continued through Texas, and possibly to California.

Fourth. The Iron Mountain Rail-road—from St. Louis by the Iron Mountain to the south line of the state, and thence through Arkansas.

Fifth. Another branch of the same system, not centering at St. Louis, but not the less one of the main trunks, viz., the Hannibal and St. Joseph Rail-road.

From the London correspondent of the

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Rail-Road Journal, we learn the following facts in regard to the late advances in the value of rail-road iron :

Pig iron, free on board in Cardiff and Newport, the great shipping ports in Wales for this article, is now at	£3	7	6	per ton.
The price in April last, before any advance took place, was	2	5	0	"
Welsh merchant bar iron, free on board, is now at	7	2	6	"
In April, before any advance, it was at	4	5	0	"
Railway bar iron was in April, before any advance	4	5	0	"
Now it is very firm for cash, free on board*	7	15	0	"

In London, the price of bar iron is usually £1 per ton higher than in the shipping ports of Wales, to pay the expenses of freight, insurance and other charges. The iron from Staffordshire and other Midland counties being of better quality for many purposes, though not for rails, is usually £1 per ton higher than Welch merchant bar iron.

One of our exchanges gives the following calculation of the railway which it is proposed to have built in Broadway, New-York. The road is to be some four miles long, at an estimated cost of some $250,000. One hundred and twenty cars are to be placed on the road or street, the expenses of which is calculated at $480 per day, or $175,000 per annum.

At 6¼ cents fare would give $4,500 per day, or $1,642,000 per annum.

At 5 cents fare would give $3,600 per day, or $1,374,000 per annum.

At 4 cents fare would give $2,880 per day, or $1,051,200 per annum.

At 3 cents fare would give $2,060 per day, or $788,200 per annum.

At 2 cents fare would give $1,440 per day, or $525,000 per annum.

At 1 cent fare would give $720 per day, or $262,500 per annum.

According to the foregoing estimate, there would be a profit :

Out 1 cent fare of $96,000, being equal to interest at 6 per cent. on $3,433,333 33.

Out 2 cents fare of $394,820, being equal to interest at 6 per cent. on $5,-330,070.

Out 3 cents fare of $613,200, being equal to interest at 6 per cent. on $10,-260,000.

* This article (rails) cannot be bought under £8 per ton to-day, for cash, against bill of lading, and the manufacturers talk of its getting up to £10 per ton before a great while.—November 5, 1852.

Out 4 cents fare of $856,000, being equal to interest at 6 per cent. on $14,-266,666 66.

Out 5 cents fare of $1,138,800, being equal to interest at 6 per cent. on $18,-980,000.

Out 6¼ cents fare of $1,466,800, being equal to interest at 6 per cent. on $24,-446,800.

This is the project of private capitalists, who are willing to pay the city five millions of dollars for the right of way for four miles.

The following will be found to embrace a complete table of the length and cost of the State Works of Pennsylvania :—

Finished Works.	Length.	Cost.
Philadelphia and Columbia Rail-road, Philadelphia to Columbia	82..	$4,204,970
Eastern Division of Pennsylvania Canal, Columbia to the mouth of Juniata	43..	6,736.509
Juniata Division of Pennsylvania Canal, mouth of the Juniata to Hollydaysburgh	130..	3,521,412
Alleghany Portage Rail-road, Hollydaysburgh to Johnstown	36..	1,828,462
Western Division of Pennsylvania Canal, Johnstown to Pittsburgh	105..	3,069,877
Total, main line from Philadelphia to Pittsburgh	306..	$14,361,320
Delaware Division of Pennsylvania Canal, Easton to Bristol	60..	1,381,742
Susquehanna Division of Pennsylvania Canal, mouth of Juniata to Northumberland	39..	896,380
North Branch of the Pennsylvania Canal, Northumberland to mouth of Lackawannock	73..	1,580,671
West Branch of Pennsylvania Canal, Northumb'rland to Lockhaven	72..	1,808,472
French Creek Division of Pennsylvania Canal and Feeder, Franklin to Meadville	45..	795,802
Beaver Division of Pennsylvania Canal, mouth of Beaver to New Castle	25..	511,671
Total finished works	710..	$21,336,058

Unfinished Works.	Length.	Cost.
North Branch Canal, Lackawana to N.Y. State line	89..	2,484,939
West Branch Extension, Lockhaven to mouth of Linnemahoning	40..	352,456
Erie Extension, Newcastle to Erie	115..	3,100,567
Wisconiso Feeder, mouth of Juniata to Lyken's Valley	13..	390,013
Alleghany Feeder, mouth of Keskemenetas to Kittaning	15..	31,172
Gettysburgh Rail-road, Gettysburgh to Hagerstown	41..	667,918
Total unfinished works	314..	$7,087,065
Whole amount of finished and unfinished works		$28,423,123

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ART. XIII.—MANUFACTURING PROGRESS.

NEW-ENGLAND FACTORIES—COTTON BAGGING—MANUFACTURES OF THE UNITED STATES.

It is now said that the *manufacturers of New-England* are enjoying a fair and moderate prosperity. Those of them which possess an abundance of working capital, and whose real estate and machinery have not cost them too high, are making very handsome profits. Others are doing fairly, and most of them are making up, to a greater or less extent, the losses of the two or three past years, which have been unusually heavy. More than half the stocks in Lowell, Lawrence, Manchester, and other places, which a year ago were selling at 50 or 60 cents on the dollar, have now risen into the neighborhood of 90, and the others, with one or two exceptions, have risen from 10 to 20 per cent. during the year.

Woolen manufactures have not risen so well from their depression as cotton fabrics, and while the number of woolen mills has been greatly reduced, the stock of those which are still working is yet much below par.

The manufacture of *cotton bagging from moss* was not long since spoken of in Mississippi, and, when tested, the bagging was said to possess durability.

The experiment of manufacturing this new bagging originated with Maj. Mosely, the Superintendent of the Penitentiary. Some years ago he attempted its manufacture with his cotton machinery, and he was so well satisfied with the result, that he sent a large quantity of moss to Kentucky, where it was manufactured into bagging with more suitable machinery.

We learn that should the bagging be successful, it may be made at a lower rate than the Kentucky bagging. Having an inexhaustible quantity in our woods, a demand for it would bring the price of the raw article down to three cents per pound. Five cents more would amply cover the cost of manufacture, and the article might be furnished at eight cents per yard.

The following is an official statement of the quantity of cotton, wool and iron consumed in the United States during the past year, together with the value of the raw material consumed, number of hands employed, and value and quantity of the articles manufactured.

Cotton Goods in the United States.

Capital invested	$74,501,031
Bales of cotton used	609,117
Tons of coal consumed	121,099
Value of all the raw material	$34,835,056
Hands employed	102,287
Value of entire product	$61,869,184
Yards of sheeting, &c	763,678,407

Woolen Manufactures of the United States.

Capital invested	$28,118,650
Pounds of wool used	70,862,829
Tons of coal	46,370
Value of all the raw material	$25,755,988
Hands employed	39,251
Value of entire products	$43,207,555
Yards of cloth manufactured	82,206,652

Wrought Iron Works of the United States.

Capital invested	$13,994,220
Tons of pig metal consumed	351,491
Tons of blooms used	33,344
Tons of ore	78,767
Tons of mineral coal	527,063
Bushels of coke and charcoal	14,510,838
Value of raw material and fuel	$9,518,109
Hands employed	12,975
Tons of wrought iron made	272,044
Value of entire products	$16,387,074

Productive Establishments of the United States.

States.	Cotton.	Woolens.	Castings.	Pig iron.	Wr'ght iron.
Massachusetts	213..	119 .	68..	6..	6
Connecticut	128..	149..	60..	13..	18
New-York	86..	249..	323..	18..	60
Delaware	12..	8..	13..	—..	2
Maryland	24..	38..	16..	18..	17
Virginia	27..	121..	54..	29..	39
South Carolina	18..	—..	6..	—..	—
Georgia	35..	3..	4..	3..	2
Tennessee	33..	4..	16..	23..	42
Kentucky	8..	25..	20..	21..	4
Ohio	8..	130..	183..	25..	11
Missouri	2..	1..	6..	5..	2
Rhode Island	158..	45..	20..	—..	1
Pennsylvania	208..	580..	320..	180..	131
New-Jersey	21..	41..	45..	10..	53
Maine	12..	36..	25..	1..	—
New-Hampshire	44..	61..	26..	1..	2
Wisconsin	—..	9..	15..	1..	—
Illinois	—..	16..	29..	2..	—
Alabama	12..	—..	10..	3..	1
Louisiana	—..	—..	8..	—..	—
Dis. of Columbia	1..	1..	2..	—..	—
Mississippi	2..	—..	8..	—..	—
Florida	—..	—..	—..	—..	—
North Carolina	28..	1..	5..	2..	10
Texas	—..	1..	—..	—..	—
Arkansas	3..	—..	—..	—..	—
Michigan	—..	15..	68..	1..	—
Vermont	9..	72..	26..	3..	8
Indiana	2..	33..	14..	2..	3
California	—..	—..	1..	—..	—
Iowa	—..	1..	3..	—..	—
Total	1,694..	1,559..	1,391..	375..	422

The entire capital invested in the various manufactures in the United States on the 1st June, 1850, not to include any establishments producing less than the annual value of $500, amounted, in round numbers, to	$530,000,000
Value of raw material	550,000,000
Amount paid for labor	240,000,000
Value of manufactured articles	1,020,300,000
Number of persons employed	1,050,000

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ART. XIV.—EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

NEW-YORK WORLD'S FAIR—FINANCES OF TENNESSEE—COLT'S PISTOL—GEORGIA FAIR—CLAY MONUMENT—ERICSSON STEAMER—MAURY'S SCIENCE—NEW BOOKS, PERIODICALS, REPORTS, ETC., ETC.—MEMPHIS CONVENTION OF 1853.

GREAT preparations are being made for the *World's Fair*, which is to be opened in New-York, on the 2d May, and a splendid show of foreign and domestic industry is anticipated. We trust that the Southern and Western people will be well represented with their agricultural, mechanical, manufacturing and mineral products. The New-York Board appointed a committee for the southwest, resident at New-Orleans, consisting of the following gentlemen :—James Robb, Lucius Duncan, Maunsel White, E. La Sere, W. N. Mercer, W. E. Gasquet, H. R. W. Hill, A. F. Axson, J. D. B. De Bow, A. M. Horlbrook, Alex. Walker, C. J. Leeds, Newton Richards.

"The committee have issued an address to the people of the states embraced in their action, Louisiana, Texas, Alabama, Mississippi, Tennessee, and Arkansas, from which we make the following extracts :—

"The Fair will be opened on the 2d day of May, 1853, for the exhibition of the industry of all nations, in the splendid structure on Reservoir Square, New-York, embracing an area of 173,000 square feet or four acres. The building has been made a bonded warehouse by government, and already assurances are given of an extensive representation of foreign industry.

"Applications for admissions of objects of exhibition must represent their nature and purpose, with the number of square feet required, whether of wall, floor, or counter. The machinery will be exhibited in motion, the motive power to be furnished by the association, and applicants must state also the amount of power required. Paintings in frames will be received. Where ores are exhibited, they should be accompanied by the rocks in which they are found, and also, if possible, by plans and sections of the measures in which they lie, and models and drawings of processes or manufacture.

"Prizes for excellence in the different departments will be awarded under the direction of capable and eminent persons.

"Applications from any of the states named in this address may be made at any time before the 1st of March, 1853, and must be directed to the chairman of the committee, at New-Orleans, complying with all the requisitions of section fourth above. The applicant must describe with precision —state the time the product will be ready for shipment, and the port from which he desires to ship, and must also provide for the expenses incurred upon it in the way of freight, drayage, &c., until delivered into the custody of the New-York Board.

"The committee at New-Orleans will decide upon all such applications, and upon the receipt of their favorable judgment, the party will be supplied with a certificate to be forwarded to New-York at the time of shipment. They desire to be informed by the 1st March of the quantity of space which will be required from their division, in order to report to the central committee.

"Citizens of the Southwest, you are invited, and earnestly solicited to be represented in this First Great American Fair. We have products in all abundance in every department of industry and ingenuity, if we will but send them, sufficient to delight and instruct every observer. We were comparatively unrepresented at the London Fair, but every consideration of patriotism should induce us to co-operate in this one upon our own soil. We are a part of the nation that must obtain the glory of success or the shame of discomfiture and defeat. Let us unite with our fellow-citizens of the North in this great enterprise, and rely upon their co-operation in any movements we may make hereafter for similar exhibitions in our immediate region. Thus shall we obliterate local feelings and prejudices and antipathies —strengthen the bonds of amity and concord—realize indeed that we are one people, with one hope and one inheritance, one faith and one destiny.

"Committee—LUCIUS C. DUNCAN, *Chairman.*
J. D. B. DE BOW,
E. LA SERE,
A. F. AXSON."

The annexed statement exhibits the pub lic indebtedness of the State of Tennessee on the 1st October, 1852:

Total indebtedness of the state, Oct. 1, 1851	$3,651,856 66
Capital bonds authorized to be issued under the act of the late General Assembly	250,000 00
Indebtedness of the state	$3,901,856 66

CONTINGENT FUND.

Bonds issued as a loan to East Tennessee and Georgia Rail-road	$350,000 00
Do. East Tennessee and Virginia Rail-road	300,000 00
Do. Gibson and Dyer Plank-road	25,000 00
Do. Memphis and Charleston Rail-road	240,000 00
Amount loaned Int. Imp. Co.'s	$915,000 00

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Amount endorsed for Nashville and Chattanooga road, as can be ascertained from the Secretary of State, is	675,000 00

RECAPITULATION.

Actual debt	$3,901,856 66
Loan debt	915,000 00
Endorsed debt	675,000 00
Total	$5,491,856 66

The people of Tennessee have managed to keep the debt of that state at a moderate point, and, under the restrictions that exist, it will be difficult to increase it much. The system of internal improvements is not calculated to involve the state so deeply as some of its neighbors, while sufficient progress is made to meet the most pressing wants of the community.

From the *London Service Journal* we learn that Col. Colt, the inventor of the celebrated repeating pistols or revolvers, and other firearms, which attracted so much public attention in the Crystal Palace, in the American department of the Great Exhibition of 1851, has found his arms to be so greatly in request in that country, not only for the private use of individuals, but also for officers in both departments of Her Majesty's service in Great Britain, and likewise in the various British possessions abroad, that he has deemed it expedient to make arrangements for establishing a place for the manufacture of them in London. With this intention the Colonel has recently arrived in that country from the United States, and has imported a large quantity of machinery and the necessary implements for the purpose.

It seems that in experiments made in England the Colt pistol has triumphed over every competitor, and thrown the officers of the army and navy into perfect ecstasies.

The next fair of the *Southern Central Agricultural Society* of Georgia, will be held in Augusta, during the week commencing on Monday, October 17, 1853.

Citizens have subscribed the very liberal sum of *seven thousand dollars* for the use and benefit of the Society, and the arrangements for the next exhibition are on the most extensive and perfect scale.

The premium list has been very much improved in many important particulars, and embraces nearly every branch of industry and taste. We shall take great pleasure in laying it before our readers in a future issue, and will keep the public apprised of all matters of interest connected with the coming exhibition.

A *Clay Monument Association* has been formed in New-Orleans for the purpose of raising funds to erect a colossal statue of the great statesman within the limits of the city. We approve of this movement with all our heart. Subscriptions are solicited from all the Southwest. The president of the association is our worthy citizen, Dr. W. N. Mercer—the chairman of the executive committee, James Robb. Would it not be well to have a colossal group in the public grounds at Washington, representing Calhoun, Clay and Webster, the great American triad, as they appeared in the compromise discussions?

Dr. J. C. Nott, of Mobile, and Geo. R. Gliddon, have issued a prospectus for a work upon the "*Types of Mankind*," or chronological researches upon monuments, paintings, skulls, &c. It is to be put to press in a short time, and will be fully noticed by us on its appearance.

As a remarkable proof of the perfection to which nautical science may be carried, it is said that Lieut. Maury, of the United States Observatory, Washington, gave to the captain of the clipper Sovereign of the Seas instructions, on sailing around Cape Horn, which, if observed, would enable the vessel to make the passage of 17,000 miles in 103 days, according to his computation, and that the actual time of the voyage only differed two hours from the prediction!

At last the great experiment of *Ericsson* has been crowned with the most brilliant success, and the age of steam is to be succeeded by that of an equally potent though less dangerous element. Who shall predict the end of this great innovation, or to what new results it will lead? In the West, where the reign of steam has been so frightful in many of its exhibitions, we look to the movements of Ericsson with delight and hope.

The *Republic* says:—"We may now say that Captain ERICSSON has realized the hope of his life and reached the goal of his ambition. To invent a substitute for the steam engine that should operate upon a less enormous consumption of fuel, and a less wholesale destruction of human beings, has been the great object of his life. To this object he has devoted his mind and his means, his time and his resources, for the last five and twenty years. He has wrought with the enthusiastic belief that it was his mission in the world to supersede steam as a motive power by some more manageable and innocuous agent. He has fulfilled his mission.

"The two important points in his invention are economy and safety. The engine of the ERICSSON is kept in motion by *one-fifth* of the fuel that would be consumed by a steam-engine of the same power. Here at once is a vast saving of coal, in labor and in ship-room. Then there is no danger from explosion by recklessness, oversight, ignorance—

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no danger from fire, or from the thousand and one accidents to which we are always liable in steam navigation. We may travel in a caloric ship without feeling ourselves perpetually liable to be boiled, broiled, or blown up. There is nothing to apprehend from an incompetent, excited, or rash engineer, in the management of a caloric engine; for when it is once set in motion it needs no watching, and will run of itself for hours without calling for human aid. The worst that could happen, were the engine abandoned, would be for the machinery to stop some time after all the fires were extinguished."

The Boston *Transcript* sums up the advantages of the newly invented engine as follows:—

1. The caloric engine burns about one-tenth as much fuel as a steam-engine; hence a caloric ship of the largest size may circumnavigate the globe without stopping to take in coal; hence, not a sail will be seen on the ocean in fifty years after the success of the new principle is certain; hence, machinery will be applied to a thousand arts which now require manual labor; hence, the possibility of that long desired machine-plough; and hence the coming of that good time when arduous manual toil will absolutely cease under the sun.

2. The cost of the caloric engine is about the same as the steam engine, minus the cost of the boilers.

3. Only one-fourth as many engine-men will be required on board a caloric ship as are necessary for a steamer.

4. No smoke whatever will issue from a caloric furnace when anthracite coal is used, and consequently no huge, unsightly smoke pipe will be necessary, and the rigging will be as clean as that of a sailing ship.

5. There can be no bursting or collapsing of boilers, for the simple reason that there will be no boilers to burst. The worst accident that can happen to a caloric engine is for it to stop; nor is watchfulness imperatively required, as in no case can a dangerous accident occur.

6. Owing to the extreme simplicity of the caloric engine, the wear and tear will be very slight, and the duration of the engine proportionably long.

If but half these advantages are secured by the substitution of caloric for steam in navigation, it is obvious that very important results may be anticipated. It is not expected that the Ericsson will equal the Collins steamers in speed; but her success will prove that a higher degree of power may be attained, if wanted. Owing to the great difference of expense in navigating the caloric ship, passengers will be taken at greatly reduced rates. We congratulate Captain Ericsson on the happy issue of his grand experiment.

The following note upon *Uncle Tom's Cabin* was sent to us by a gentleman in Georgia:—

"Mrs. Stowe has written an elegant novel, but though it is only a fiction, it is one of the most incendiary papers ever issued from the American press. It is insulting to the South, because Mrs. Stowe wants the world to believe that all she has written is true! There is one fact however stated in the book, which cannot be controverted, and that is, 'that negroes are sold and bought and held as property.' Now this species of property so held in the Southern States, amounts in round numbers to one thousand millions of dollars—the labor of the slave states produces annually in cotton, rice, and tobacco alone, upwards of one hundred and twenty millions of dollars, giving employment to a vast amount of New-England and Old-England shipping—besides employing an immense amount of capital and labor in Old and New-England. If Mrs. Stowe, and her associates in America and Great Britain, think that the Southern people are so inconsiderate as to give up their property for nothing, and then keep the negroes in a state of idleness as they are kept in Jamaica, they are certainly mistaken. Even on the supposition, for argument sake, that slavery is an evil, how was it brought here, and by whom? The present owners hold generally by inheritance and some by purchase. But if abolition must be resorted to, for the expunging a national evil, how is it to be effected? and who is to bear the burthen? Will New-England come and buy the negroes, take them away and manumit them? or will the government of the United States pay for them and colonize them pro rata, amongst all the states and territories of the Union, until they can be gradually colonized in Africa? Why, if the slaves were to be liberated instanter, and without compensation, the entire South would become desolate—the people would be ruined! and it would be the worst day's work ever done for Old-England, and probably for New-England too: it would shake the government of Old-England to its very foundations, if it did not entirely overthrow it! Great Britain would rather look for a division of the United States, and expect to have all the trade of the Southern States to herself, taking the cotton, tobacco, and other products, and returning manufactured goods, and by this means retard the growing prosperity of the United States, and stave off her own downfall for a century or two. If the negroes are to be emancipated, let the abolitionists count the cost,—*the whole country must bear*

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it, under a system of apprenticeship and colonization, *and not otherwise*.

"The Pharisees lay grievous burthens, but are not willing to lift one of them with their little finger. Would Mrs. Stowe (or any abolitionist) give up all her property, including the avails of Uncle Tom's Cabin, for any purpose whatever? or would she even relinquish the anticipated pleasure of her contemplated trip to Europe, in pure sympathy for the black race? She will find abundant vice, penury, want, and almost starvation, if she will look for it, in Europe, She ought to get up a book for the universal amelioration and equalization of mankind, and point out the ways and means how to perfect so desirable a system.

"VERITAS."

We are indebted to Mrs. Sarah J. Hale, editor of the *Ladies' Book*, for a copy of her Memorial upon the subject of *Female Teachers for Common Schools*, and also her Appeal upon the subject of the *Ladies' Medical Missionary Society*. These are papers ably drawn up, and reflecting credit upon the head and heart of the author. We have only space now to remark, that in the Memorial she asks a grant of land from Congress for establishing schools to prepare females for purposes of instruction, basing herself upon the following propositions:—

Whereas there are now, within these United States and territories, more than *two millions of children and youth* destitute, or nearly so, of proper means of education, requiring, at this moment, 20,000 additional teachers, if we give to each instructor the care of one hundred pupils, quite too many for any common school with only one teacher—therefore we beg to call your attention to the following propositions:—

1. That to find 20,000 young men, who would enter on the office of pedagogue, would be utterly impossible, while the great West, the mines of California, and the open ocean, laving China and the East, are inviting them to adventure and activity.

2. That, therefore, young women must become the teachers of common schools, or these must be given up.

3. That young women are the *best teachers* has been proved and acknowledged by those men who have made trial of the gentle sex in schools of the most difficult description (see Reports of the "Board of Popular Education," "Reports of Common Schools in Massachusetts, &c.,) because of the superior tact and moral power natural to the female character.

4. That female teachers are now largely employed, on an average of five of these to one male teacher, in New-England, New-York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and wherever the common-school system is in a prosperous condition; and everywhere these teachers are found faithful and useful.

5. That, to make education *universal*, it must be *moderate in expenses*, and women can afford to teach for one-half, or even less, the salary which men would ask, because the female teacher has only to sustain herself; she does not look forward to the duty of supporting a family, should she marry; nor has she the ambition to amass a fortune; nor is she obliged to give from her earnings support to the state or government.

6. That the young women of our land, who would willingly enter on the office of teacher, are generally in that class which must earn their livelihood; therefore these should have special and gratuitous opportunities of preparing them for school duties; thus the normal schools, in educating these teachers of common schools, are rendering a great national service.

7. That, though the nation gives them opportunity of education gratuitously, yet these teachers, in their turn, will do the work of educating the children of the nation better than men could do, and at a far *less expense*; therefore the whole country is vastly the gainer by this system.

8. That it is not designed to make a class of *celibates*, but that these maiden school-teachers will be better prepared to enter the marriage state, after the term of three or four years in their office of instructors, than by any other mode of passing their youth from seventeen or eighteen to twenty-one. That earlier marriages are productive of much of the unhappiness of married women, of many sorrows, sickness, and premature decay and death, there can be no doubt.

Mr. Livingston, of New-York, has begun the publication of a new *Monthly Law Magazine*, of which we have received the first number. It is ably edited, handsomely executed, and embellished with portraits of eminent lawyers. Price $3 per annum.

The new Magazine of Mr. Putnam, New-York, reached us in good season. There are many able articles from distinguished contributors, and the work shows off very handsomely. We wish the publisher much success. $3 per annum.

Appleton's *Mechanics' Magazine*, monthly, at the same price, is also received.

We thank the editors for a copy of the *Pen and Pencil*; a new weekly Journal in pamphlet form, published at Cincinnati, and devoted to literature, science, and art. $3 per annum.

The January number of the *Soil of the South* appears in a new shape, and greatly improved. It is deserving of support from the planters of the South.—Columbus, Geo.

Affleck's *Southern Rural Almanac* for

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1853, is now issued, and contains a great deal of matter valuable for planters, and at a low price.

Mr. Appleton has furnished us with No. 1, of a work he is publishing, entitled *Memoirs, Journal, and Correspondence of Thomas Moore*, edited by the Right Hon. Lord John Russell, M.P. We shall notice the parts as they appear.

We are indebted to J. B. Steel, New-Orleans, for the *Heart of Mid-Lothian* and the *Bride of Lammermoor;* being two numbers of the cheap edition of Scott's Novels, now in course of publication by A. Hart, Philadelphia. We are also indebted to J. C. Morgan, New-Orleans, for a pamphlet edition of the Speeches of Hayne and Webster on the Resolutions of Foote, in 1830.

We have received the February number of *Hunt's Merchant's Magazine*, and need not say of it that, like all of its predecessors, it is able and valuable to merchant, planter, statesman, and philosopher. This work has been published for twelve or thirteen years, and enjoys a reputation on both sides of the ocean. It is published in New-York at $5 per annum.

Our thanks are due to Messrs. Tarver & Cobb, of St. Louis, for the regular issues of their *Western Journal and Civilian*, which is published monthly, and devoted to agriculture, manufactures, the mechanic arts, internal improvement, commerce, public policy and polite literature. $3 per annum.

Through Leonard, Scott & Co., New-York, we receive the re-publication of,

1. *The London Quarterly Review* (Conservative).
2. *The Edinburgh Review* (Whig).
3. *The North British Review* (Free Church).
4. *The Westminster Review* (Liberal).
5. *Blackwood's Edinburgh Magazine* (Tory).

TERMS.—For any one of the four Reviews, $3 per annum; for any two of the four Reviews, $5 do.; for any three of the four Reviews, $7 do.; for all four of the Reviews, $8 do.; for Blackwood's Magazine, $3 do., for Blackwood and three Reviews, $9 do.; for Blackwood and the four Reviews, $10 do.

The present postage on Blackwood is 24 cents per annum; on a Review, 12 cents do.

The rates are now uniform for ALL DISTANCES within the United States.

L. S. & Co. have recently published, and have now for sale, the "FARMER'S GUIDE," by Henry Stephens of Edinburgh, and Prof. Norton of Yale College, New-Haven, complete in 2 vols., royal octavo, containing 1600 pages, 14 steel and 600 wood engravings. Price, in muslin binding, $6; in paper covers, for the mail, $5.

This work is *not* the old "Book of the Farm," lately *resuscitated* and thrown upon the market.

From W. Young, editor and proprietor, we receive the *New-York Albion*—a weekly journal of news, politics, and literature, published at 3 Barclay street, New-York, every Saturday, at $6 per annum. Every subscriber is entitled to a fine engraving. The subject for the present year is Mary, Queen of Scots, from an original picture. Amongst those hitherto published, and from which choice may be made, are Queen Victoria, Prince Albert, General Washington, Landseer's Dignity and Impudence, St. Paul's Cathedral, The First Trial by Jury, &c.

The Southern Commercial Convention adjourned over from Baltimore, to meet on the *first Monday of June next, at Memphis.* We trust that the whole South will be fully and strongly represented. The people of Memphis have already moved in the matter, and passed the following resolutions:—

Resolved, 1st. That we, the citizens of Memphis, have read with much pleasure the proceedings of the "Southern and Western Commercial Convention" recently assembled at Baltimore.

2d. That we feel a deep and abiding interest in the objects of that Convention.

3d. That we were especially gratified at the appointment of its next meeting at this place, and we cordially offer to its members and all, from every section of the Union, who may feel interested in its proceedings, the hospitalities of our city.

4th. That a committee of ten be appointed by the chair, to make all arrangements necessary and proper for the holding of the Convention.

Committee—James Penn, E. M. Apperson, Robertson Topp, M. Owen, A. O. Harris, J. J. Rawlings, C. W. Cherry, Thos. H. Allen, James Elder, J. M. Howard.

Judge Overton, president of the *Opelousas Rail-road*, has lately made a report, which we have not seen, but which is referred to thus by the editors of the *Bee*:—

"It shows that the affairs of the company have been judiciously managed. It recommends an increase in the capital of the company, and trusts the proper state aid will be given to the undertaking. Contracts have been made for the purchase of 4000 tons of rail-road iron, deliverable at the company's wharves in Algiers, at $55 per ton. Since these contracts were made, iron has risen $20 per ton, and this advance will increase the cost of the road to Washington about $800,000. It is confidently hoped that within the next twelve months the road will be completed to Berwick's Bay, and that a portion of the next year's sugar crop from

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the Teche will reach market by means of the road. The report dwells in glowing terms on the prospective advantages to be derived from the completion of this great undertaking, its proposed continuation into Texas, and its ultimate extension to the shores of the Pacific."

The "lettings" of the *New-Orleans and Nashville* rail-road have been completed to the Mississippi state line from South Manchac, and this part of the road, it is thought, will be ready for the rails by the end of the year. The rails have already been purchased. The surveyors are at work between the state line and Jackson, Miss., and it is intended to make the road a first-class one, with easy grades, adapted to a double track.

It is proposed to form a company in New-Orleans, to be called the *New-Orleans and Pearl River Rail-road and Navigation Company*, for the purpose of constructing a rail-road from Madisonville, on the opposite side of Lake Ponchartrain, to intersect the Mobile and Ohio road at its nearest and most direct point, a distance of perhaps 160 or 170 miles. Low pressure steamers are intended to ply between Madisonville and New-Orleans.

Senators Gwin and Rusk have with praiseworthy zeal been pressing the construction of a *rail-road to the Pacific*. Senator Gwin's plan provides for a trunk line from San Francisco to Memphis, for branches from the trunk to St. Louis, to Dubuque, to New-Orleans, and the Bay of Metagorda, in Texas, and the branch from San Francisco to Oregon, the whole length of the trunk and branches to be over five thousand miles. He proposes to grant lands for the object to the amount of a hundred and twenty-four millions of dollars, at the government price of a dollar and a quarter an acre. The road will cost, according to his estimate, $27,500 a mile. The Texas road he supposes that Texas will herself make, as she is deeply interested in the same, and as the United States have no lands in that state; but if not, he proposes that the United States shall grant money to Texas in aid of the road within her limits, as a military and post-road of the United States. The number of passengers on the road for the first year, he estimates at seventy-five thousand, and the fare at two hundred dollars; giving an income of fifteen millions from this source. Mr. Gwin's route has, he says, been fully explored, and wagons pass over portions of it even now. He mentions that it is a central and direct, and the shortest route.

We lately had the pleasure of visiting the garden and grounds of Mr. Lawrence, in the lower part of the city of New-Orleans. This gentleman gives great attention to the culture of the best and rarest varieties of fruits, flowers, vines, vegetables, &c., and is prepared to execute orders for the same. Among the fruits, we note cherries, plums, currants, gages, raspberries, gooseberries, nectarines, apricots, peaches, oranges, lemons, quinces, figs, pears, bananas, apples, pine-apples, mangoes, quavas, &c. His green-house is supplied with rare exotics, and upwards of 10,000 rose-trees are set out in the garden. We saw beautiful strawberries, in January. Among grape-vines, we noted the Black Hamburg, the Chasselas de Fontainbleau, the Muscat, Spanish and Sweet Water, &c. Mr. Lawrence devotes much attention also to bees, using the patent hive of Minor, and to foreign varieties of poultry, which we had occasion to mention a year ago. In the list of his poultry are included Brahma Pootra, Royal Cochin China, Imperial Chinese, Silver-Pencilled Hamburg, Black Spanish, Buff Cochin Chinas, White Shanghaes, Sumatra Game, White Cochin China, Black Poland, Black Shanghaes, &c. &c. The collection is worthy of a visit.

PORCELAIN.—In making a tour of observation with a view to spy out the lions of New-York, we made an editorial stroll into the extensive establishment of Messrs. Haviland and Brother, 47 John-street. We were kindly carried through the whole establishment, from cellar to garret, and witnessed a display of porcelain ware, which we believe can nowhere else be seen, except within the precincts of Sèvres and Limoges; certainly none comparable to it can be found in this country. One of our own fraternity, the editor of the ancient and mirth-inspiring *Knickerbocker*, seems to have made a similar tour; and as he has anticipated us in his observations, which are substantially correct, we will extract them for the benefit of our readers.—

"For a long period, those of our countrymen who have visited France have embraced every opportunity to see the rich and gorgeous vases that have been sent forth from the government manufactory of porcelain at Sèvres. We remember, three or four years ago, on a visit to the palace of Versailles, seeing two very superb vases, about six feet high, from the national fabrique, upon which were represented in emblematic portraiture some of the most stirring and glorious scenes of French history. They had been presented to Louis Philippe, and cost, we believe, 50,000 francs. We had little idea at the time that any of our countrymen were engaged in the same department of art and manufacture, and least of

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all, that there were Americans at Limoges who were rivaling in beauty the exquisite works sent out from Sèvres. We have recently learned, however, that such is the case; and although many of our readers may not be aware of the fact, there is no difficulty whatever in procuring the execution of any porcelain work, whatever may be the design, or however elaborately it is to be worked, by sending their orders to New-York city. There is a large house in New-York engaged in this trade, and some of the works they have recently produced will vie with the very best that are made in France. They make the moulds for the shape of their porcelain ware, and the laws of France secure to them a species of patent-right in the particular forms; and wherever these moulds are used in the dominions of the French, it is only for the filling of their orders; since the inventor or designer holds his right perpetually in the fruit of his own artistic skill. The casting of the porcelain is a very simple work, and can be done in any establishment of the kind in France. The house we speak of have all their work done at Limoges, an ancient French town, some three hundred miles south of Paris; a town which has been sustained for many centuries by the manufacture, out of their superior clays, of articles in porcelain for ornament and utility. About three hundred persons are employed at Limoges in modeling, finishing, decorating, and packing the goods of this American house. But the most important department is the artistic finish of gilding, painting, and decoration, after the works are cast. We shall have occasion to show how far the genius of our countrymen, as well as their adventurous spirit, has rendered us independent of the Europeans, in securing for ourselves these exquisite productions.

"The importation of porcelain has very greatly increased in this country during the last few years, and the porcelain of France is far more highly esteemed than that of England or China. The clay at Limoges is better than can be found in any other part of the world, even in France; in proof of which it is only necessary to say that the government, at Sèvres, obtain all their supplies there. The chief reasons why French porcelain has gone into almost universal use are, that it is found to be cheaper than any other description, and perhaps even more so than earthenware itself, in consequence of its greater durability. The best quality of French porcelain never becomes discolored from absorption, nor turns dark when chipped. In the process of manufacture, the clay becomes semi-vitrified, and no destruction of the outer glazing betrays any change in its color. Among those who execute the paintings upon this porcelain, there are some whose works give evidence of taste and genius of a very high order. Some females are employed in painting, one of whom has executed pieces that would do honor to artists of greater reputation. Those who are familiar with the artistic works of Europe well know that, in certain species of the fine arts, particularly in miniature painting, and in delicate drawings and shadings, many of the women of Europe have carried art to a higher degree of perfection than almost any of their rivals of the male sex. There seems to be a special adaptation in the extreme delicacy and nervous sensibility and acute perceptions of woman, to the execution of those more delicate, shadowy, and softened hues, tints and colorings, which are so constantly called into requisition in the ethereal shadowings of the porcelain art world. At the great establishment of Haviland Brothers & Co.—for we had forgotten to say that we allude to them as the pioneers in this new and great department of what we trust will become one of our national arts—we have seen vases and mantel ornaments illustrated with copies of celebrated historical paintings and other works of art, executed with great taste, and which, even to the eye of connoisseurs, might be considered beautiful and spirited representations of the originals. We might have added that the Brothers Haviland established their house in New-York in 1838, and in France in 1840, and they have been instrumental to a far greater extent than the public may generally suppose, in introducing among us the most superb works in porcelain that are now made. We shall endeavor, as soon as we have been enabled to gather the necessary information, to give our readers a minute description of the process which every dinner or tea set, or vase, or other porcelain ornament, goes through, from the first design, until it leaves the manufactory in Limoges, passes through the hands of the artist, and flashes in its brilliancy from the salons of New-York."

In consequence of a crowd of matter, many advertisements are excluded from this number. The period of their appearance will therefore be extended.

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PLANTATION BOOK.

J. W. Randolph,

RICHMOND, VA.,

Has published the Plantation and Farm Instruction, Regulation, Record, Inventory and Account Book, for the use of managers of estates, and for the better ordering and management of plantation and farm business, in every particular, by a Southern Planter. Order is Heaven's first law.—*Pope.* Price $2, or six for $10; a larger edition for the use of cotton plantations, price $2 50, or five for $10.

CONTENTS.—Actual number of pounds to a Bushel, articles received for use of Plantation, Brick Kiln, Births of Negroes, Balance Sheet, Cows, Cultivation, Contents of a Corn Crib, Clothing to Negroes, Diameter of a Horse Mill, Deaths of Negroes, Directions how to use this Book, Expenses and Sales for the Year, Form of a Contract with Manager, Force of a Draught Horse, Horses, Hogs, Instructions to Managers, Implements, Journal or Daily Record, Medicines, Manure Tables, Mechanical Power, Effect of the Labor of an Active Man, Inventory of Negroes, Oxen, Washington's Letter to his Steward, Plantation Management, Police, Plowing Rules, Planting Distances, Physician's Visits, Quantity and Value of Produce Made, Quantity of Work of a Man and Two Horses, Rules for the Government and Discipline of the Negroes, Rotation Tables for Cultivation of Crops, Rural Economy, Sheep, Steam Engines, Stock and Implements, Tools, &c. used by the Negroes, Weight of Materials, Weights and Measures, Wind Mills, Water Wheels, When a Horse Draws to Advantage, &c.

There are extra sheets for monthly and yearly reports, for the use of those who do not live on their farms. The Book will be sent by mail free of postage to any one who will remit the price in money or postage stamps to 121 Main-street.

This book is one of the best and most systematic farmers in Virginia; and experienced farmers have expressed the opinion that those who use it will save hundreds of dollars. March, 1853.—(1y.)

THE NEW-YORK AND LIVERPOOL

UNITED STATES MAIL STEAMERS.

The ships composing this Line are the *Atlantic* Capt. West; *Pacific*, Capt. Nye; *Arctic*, Capt. Luce; *Baltic*, Capt. Comstock; *Adriatic.*

These ships have been built by contract, expressly for Government service; every care has been taken in their construction, as in the engines, to ensure strength and speed, and their accommodations for passengers are unequaled for elegance and comfort.

Price of passage from New-York to Liverpool in first Cabin, $120; exclusive use of extra size state rooms, $300; in second Cabin, $70; from Liverpool to New-York, £30 and £20. An experienced Surgeon attached to each ship. No berth can be secured until paid for.

For freight or passage apply to
EDWARD K. COLLINS & Co.,
March, '53.—(6m.) 56 Wall-st., New-York.

DE CORDOVAS'

Texas Land and General Agency,

HOUSTON & AUSTIN.

Refer to Gov. P. H. BELL; Hon. THOS. H. DUVAL; Hon. S. CROSBY, Commissioner. [Mar.'53-6m.

KING & BOND,

GENERAL AGENTS,

298 Broad Street, Newark, N. J.,

Give their attention to the sale of real estate, household furniture, bank and insurance stock, negotiating loans on bond and mortgage, insurance, collecting debts, &c.

MOSES R. KING,
(Mar.'53-1y.) JAS F. BOND,
SAML W. BOND.

Moses King, Commissioner of Deeds for New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Louisiana, South Carolina, and Wisconsin. James F. Bond, Notary Public.

THOMPSON & NIXON'S

NEW-ORLEANS FASHIONABLE

CLOTHING ESTABLISHMENT,

No. 19 Camp-St., opposite Hewlett's Exchange,

Keep constantly on hand a large and superior stock of Fashionable Clothing and Gentlemen's Furnishing Goods, comprising nearly every article pertaining to a gentleman's wardrobe. Jan. '53.—(1y.)

WESTERN MILITARY INSTITUTE,

DRENNON SPRINGS, KENTUCKY.

The Annual Session of this College commences the second Monday in September, and the second *term* of the session on the first Monday in February of each year.

Its course of studies embraces the scientific course of the United States Military Academy at West Point, and thorough instruction in History, International and Constitutional Law, the Greek and Latin Languages, and Civil Engineering. Great facilities are also offered for the study of the modern European languages. A flourishing *Law School*, under the Hon. Thomas B. Monroe, a judge of the Federal Court, distinguished for high legal attainments, is connected with the Institute, and affords great advantages to the students.

The military feature introduced is not merely for the purpose of diffusing military knowledge, but as the means of exercising complete control, and of securing to the student the personal advantages of a uniform and economical distribution of time, habits of punctuality, health, physical development, and a consequent increase of mental vigor.

The location of the Institute is very healthy, and is removed from the allurements, the vices, and the dissipations usually incident to college life. Situated on the Kentucky River, it may be reached by steamboat from Louisville or Cincinnati, or by railroad from Louisville to Eminence, on the Louisville and Frankfort road, and thence by stage to Drennon—a distance of twelve miles.

Institute charges for tuition, boarding, lodging, fuel, lights, washing, servants' attendance, and use of furniture and arms, $80 per term. Surgeon's fee, $5 per session.

Charges in the *Law School* for the above, and use of text-books $160 per term. Each *term* commencing and ending with the semi-annual session of the Institute.

Students are received at any time, and charged from the date of entrance to the end of the session.

For further information, address the Adjutant or Superintendent, at Drennon Springs, Kentucky; Smith & Johnson, 67 Magazine-street, New-Orleans; A. O. Smith, Louisville, Kentucky.

B. R. JOHNSON,
March, '53.—(4m.) *Superintendent.*

Shirts! Shirts!! Good Shirts!!!

C. LEIGHTON'S

FIRST PREMIUM SHIRT STORE,

No. 63 Canal-st., corner St. Charles-st., New-Orleans.

Is constantly receiving additions to the already splendid assortment of Fine Shirts, Under-Shirts, Drawers, Hosiery, Gloves, Cravats, Suspenders, Perfumery, Fancy Articles, etc.

☞ A call will convince the visitor that a fashionable article, faithfully made, and offered at the lowest possible price, is the aim of the proprietor.

Manufactory, No. 16 Park-Place, New-York, and at Montgomery-street, San Francisco. [Mar.'53-9m.

FIELD & LANGSTROTH,

Successors to Rogers, Brothers & Co.,

Importers of genuine Rodger's, Wostenholm & Crook's Superior Cutlery, and dealers in Foreign and Domestic Hardware, Guns and Pistols.

Mar.'53-4m] 166 Market-st., Philadelphia.

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DE BOW'S INDUSTRIAL RESOURCES.

(*For Prospectus, see fourth page of cover.*)

In order that those who may desire to procure this work may perceive the character it enjoys abroad, the publisher will issue, as they come in, the opinions of the press, and of leading individuals in different parts of the Union.

From Hon. George Bancroft, Historian of the United States.—Your work exceeds in merit any similar one with which I am acquainted in any other part of the Union.

From Hon. Robert J. Walker.—The whole work is useful and valuable. I have read several articles with interest and instruction.

From Hunt's Merchants' Magazine.—This is altogether the most important book on the industrial interests of the country which has been issued from the American press; important not only to the people of the Southern and Western States, respecting which it is so rich in details, but equally important to whatever citizen in other sections desires to become acquainted with the incalculable riches of this portion of our common country. The work is prepared with great labor and research, not only on the part of the compiler, but many intelligent co-operators in various parts of the South, and its contents have been prepared originally, or compiled or collected, or extracted from every source where industry and discrimination could obtain materials of value for such an important publication. But although so varied, so extensive, and so important may be the contents of these volumes, respecting the industrial resources of a portion of our country, yet they are entitled to high commendation on another ground. They furnish the first systematic attempt which has been made to gather and systematize, within the compass of two or three volumes, the commercial resources of half of the United States. The manner in which the work has been prepared and issued from the press, reflects high credit upon the diligence, discernment and accomplishments of its author, while it can scarcely fail to meet with a very general and complimentary commendation for its fullness, accuracy, and completeness, upon all the subjects of which it treats. By reference to its title its comprehensiveness of detail will be apparent, and some conception can be obtained by the reader, of the assiduous labor and length of time required in the production of these volumes.

From the Washington Republic.—The articles are alphabetically arranged, and evince much careful research and intimate acquaintance with the subjects respectively treated on. A glance at the index is sufficient to show the importance of the topics.

From the Washington Union.—Altogether the work forms an invaluable compendium of all matters pertaining to the industrial resources of the South and West, and is eminently deserving of a place in the library of the statesman, the political economist, and the man of business. * * * * * * * * * * We of course allude to Hunt's Merchants' Magazine, which has attained a world-wide popularity, and to De Bow's Review of the Southern and Western States—a work more sectional indeed in its character than its predecessor and compeer, but not inferior to it in either the intrinsic importance of the subjects discussed, the value and extent of its statistical details, or in point of literary merit.

From the Richmond Whig.—If our politicians and public lecturers, and we hope we may be pardoned for including the press, would more frequently and studiously recur to the instructive pages of such works as this, the country would be largely the gainer. We commend the work as one in every way worthy of the most liberal patronage.

From the Baltimore Patriot.—No one knows better how to write on these subjects than Mr. De Bow, as he has long made them his study. This work should be in every gentleman's library, as it must be a standard work, and one that future generations will be pleased to refer to.

From the New-York Evening Post.—It is a most useful book, and furnishes a ready means of access to a class of statistics now scattered through newspapers and legislative reports, which it would require almost a lifetime to gather together. Mr. De Bow has a genius for statistics, and is, withal, a most industrious and intelligent compiler.

From the Richmond Enquirer.—Here is collected the fullest information concerning slave and free labor, slavery institutions, natural products and characteristics of the country in which we live—together with a perfect summary of the laws and constitutional provisions of the Southern States; with historical sketches of their rise. history, and present social condition; in short, the most complete and comprehensive account of their material, moral and political state; backed by immense masses of statistics illustrating every point on which reference can be desired. Mr. De Bow is well known to the whole United States as the Editor of the periodical, called De Bow's *Commercial Review*, published at New-Orleans,—a work of the highest character for the accuracy and extent of its information,—and without which no politician or well-informed Southern gentleman should be.

From Harpers' Magazine.—This work is important on account of its extensive statistical and industrial information. It contains several elaborate essays of great value. It is still more important in a national point of view, making the different parts of the Union better acquainted with each other, and increasing the attachment of all to the general interests of their common country.

From the Memphis Enquirer—To state the title of this most elaborate work, is enough to speak its commendation to every intelligent citizen. Professor De Bow has entitled himself to public gratitude, for putting into such a convenient shape the immense amount of valuable information which these volumes contain, and which could not be elsewhere found by any individual without the labor of years.

From the Mobile Register.—There is nothing in the geography or statistics of the Southern or Western States of the Union which may not be found carefully recorded in the pages of this book. It is a manual not to be dispensed with by the statesman, and necessary to every man who desires to study the position, prospects and improvements of the country.

From the Savannah Courier.—We can safely say that the three volumes now before us, in real utility and practical value, have not been excelled by any three volumes of equal size which have passed through the American press in the last ten years.

From the United States Economist, New York.—It supplies a want that has long been felt in relation to this country, and compares in usefulness to the celebrated Progress of the Nation, by the late G. R. Porter, Esq.

From the New-Orleans Picayune.—The work deserves to be placed on the shelves of the library, as an indispensable American compendium, by the side of McCulloch. In no similar space can so much be found so readily relating to the statistics and progress of the Southwest and the South.

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A. Mouton

OF LOUISIANA.
AGRICULTURIST.

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all her claim to the territory east of the new territory—Winthrop Sarg

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DE BOW'S REVIEW:

A MONTHLY JOURNAL

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ART. I.—PROGRESS OF OHIO, HISTORICAL AND STATISTICAL.

UNDER Marquette's discoveries in 1673, the French laid claim to all the region watered by the Mississippi and its tributaries; and after D'Iberville's expedition from France, which explored northward up the Mississippi, as Marquette had done southward from Canada, forts were located, and colonies planted at different points throughout the whole extent of country—all subject to the general authority of Louisiana. And thus originated their claim to the territory northwest of the Ohio river, while the English based theirs, not only upon the grants of different monarchs, embracing the whole extent of land from sea to sea, but upon the ground that the Six Nations owned the entire valley of the Ohio, and had placed it, with themselves, under the protection of England; the English, also, asserting the purchase of a portion of the land.

An English trading company was formed in 1748, styled the Ohio Company, whose trading-house or fort on the Great Miami, attacked and destroyed by the French, in 1752, was the first English settlement in the Ohio valley upon record. Braddock's defeat in 1755, gave encouragement to the Indians to encroach eastwardly. After several treaties and outbreaks, they were defeated by Lord Dunmore at Point Pleasant, in a severely contested battle, which was followed soon afterwards by a final peace.

In 1763 took place the cession of Canada to England by France, and with it all her claim to the territory east of the Mississippi river. After the colonies renounced their allegiance to the British crown, in 1776, the different states claiming western lands under their respective charters, ceded them to the United States as common property, and the English claim was relinquished by the treaty of Paris, in 1783.

The Ohio river had been proposed for our western boundary by Mr. Oswald, the commissioner on the part of England; but, as is well known, John Adams insisted upon the Mississippi as the boundary, and it was thus settled by that negotiation. It was in 1784 Virginia ceded her right to the lands north of the Ohio river — Connecticut, Massachusetts, New-York, and Pennsylvania shortly afterwards following her example. The Indian title was extinguished, first by a treaty at Fort Stanwix with the Six Nations, and subsequently by a second one with the Wyandotts, Delawares, &c., at Fort McIntosh. Surveys and sales were then made by Congress, —the "New-England Ohio Company" purchasing a tract lying adjacent to the Scioto and Muskingum rivers, and there commencing in the spring of 1788 the settlement of Marietta, at the mouth of the Muskingum, the first permanent one in Ohio. A previous attempt at the mouth of the Scioto, where Portsmouth now stands, was abandoned, on account of difficulties with the Indians. In the same year with the settlement at Marietta, General Arthur St. Clair was appointed by Congress governor over the new territory—Winthrop Sargeant, se-

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cretary—and as judges, Samuel Holden Parsons, James Mitchell Varnum, and John Cleves Symmes, who organized the territorial government, and made and adopted suitable laws.

In 1787, John Cleves Symmes, a member of the Old Congress from New-Jersey, and formerly chief justice of that state, with associates, contracted with Congress for the purchase of one million acres of land, lying between the two Miamis, and extending back northwardly from the Ohio river. The second settlement in Ohio was made in this tract, at Columbia, a point five miles above Cincinnati, October, 1788. Soon afterwards, Symmes sold to Mathias Denman, of New-Jersey, about eight hundred acres of his purchase, opposite the mouth of the Licking. Five hundred and fifty dollars was the sum paid for these eight hundred acres of land, on which now stands the principal business portion of the city of Cincinnati. The first cabin upon this site was erected in December, 1788. The settlements that followed were, Manchester, on the Ohio river, the first effected in the country, lying between the Scioto and Little Miami rivers, by General Massie and others, in the winter of 1790; Gallipolis, by immigrants from France, in the same year; Hamilton, laid off by Israel Ludlow, late in 1794; Dayton, by the same, in 1795; Cleveland, surveyed and laid out in the fall of 1795; Chillicothe, laid out by General Massie, in 1796; and Portsmouth, settled since 1805. The tract reserved by Connecticut, in her cession to the general government, situated east of the Cuyahoga, found purchasers in her own and other states, and by the year 1800 numbered one thousand settlers.

Though the Indian treaties had been renewed and confirmed, they were continually violated by hostile portions of the different tribes, and in 1789, nine persons were killed in Symmes' purchase. Block-houses were built by the alarmed settlers, and Major Doughty, with one hundred and forty men from Fort Harmar, Marietta, in June, 1789, commenced Fort Washington, the site of the present city of Cincinnati. The Indian aggressions still continuing to intimidate them, General Harmar with 1,300 men marched against their towns, and attacked them, but was unsuccessful, and retreated back to Cincinnati. In November, 1791, General St. Clair, at the head of an army of nearly 3,000 men, approaching the Indian towns, was attacked near what is now the line of Darke and Mercer counties, by the combined forces of nearly all the northwest tribes, and experienced a total and most disastrous defeat. The Indian difficulties were, in consequence, multiplied, and for a time emigration ceased entirely. Washington, as President, urged the prosecution of this protective war; but it was not until 1794 that an army was assembled at Greenville, under Gen. Anthony Wayne. In August of that year he obtained a decisive victory over a force of two thousand Indians, at the Rapids of the Maumee. When their country was laid waste, and they saw the American forts springing up around them, they at length submitted and sued for peace. When we consider the fierce and unrelenting warfare waged by the Indian tribes upon the white settlements of the West, during the thirty-seven years of almost uninterrupted conflict, from 1757, when the first white man was killed in Kentucky, down to the period of Wayne's victory, we may form some faint idea of the toil, and perils, and suffering of the bold and hardy race of pioneers who effected the colonization of the vast western world. An Indian chief, at the conclusion of a treaty, yielding up the right of soil in Kentucky, said to Boone, "Brother, we have given you a fine land, but I think you will have trouble to settle it." And his prediction was fully verified, there and elsewhere, of lands purchased of the Indians.

Hostilities being at an end, population rapidly increased in the rich farming district between the Miamis—settlers spread outward from Marietta. Connecticut sent many to her reserved tract, bordering on Lake Erie; and in 1798 the inhabitants of the territory were 5,000 in number, with eight organized counties. The territory was then entitled, by the ordinance of 1787, to representatives in a territorial legislature, the first meeting of which took place in Sept., 1799. Wm. Henry Harrison, then secretary of the territory, and since President of the United States, was at that time elected to Congress.

In 1802 Congress authorized a convention to form a state constitution; it assembled at Chillicothe, and on the

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29th November adopted and signed a constitution of state government, by which act Ohio took her place amongst the states of the Union. The first General Assembly under the state constitution was held at Chillicothe in 1803. In 1805 the United States acquired, by another Indian treaty, the portion of the reserve of Connecticut lying west of the Cuyahoga river, and in subsequent treaties the Maumee and Sandusky regions were ceded by the Indians, thus extinguishing all their claims in Ohio. In 1811 the Indians, after a series of outbreaks, were defeated by General Harrison, then governor of the Indiana territory, at the famous battle of Tippecanoe. During this same year the first steamer ever launched upon the western waters made the voyage from Pittsburgh to New-Orleans. In 1816 the seat of government was removed from Chillicothe to its present location at Columbus, situated in the centre of the state, upon the Scioto river.

It would seem almost superfluous to speak of the fertile character of the soil of Ohio, but there are some varieties, owing to geological formation, which may be properly noticed. That part which has transition lime-rock for its upper stratum is of course possessed of a soil remarkably durable, and well adapted to wheat and grass. This portion embraces nearly half of the state, the eastern line of it commencing at the lake, near the mouth of the Huron river, and passing in a southerly direction, leaves Columbus a few miles east, and touches the Ohio river in Adams county. All lying west of this line is emphatically a limestone country. A great part of the ten counties constituting the Connecticut Reserve is based on shale and sandstone, and although good land, and capable of producing, with careful culture, all kinds of grain and fruit suitable to the climate, yet, lacking calcareous matter in the soil, it is less fertile than the rest of the state. The middle and south-eastern section of Ohio is much more uneven than the western and northern, the streams having carried away the earth to a greater extent, because it was from its nature less able to resist the action of flood and frost. This great section has the debris of the lime strata, that lie in the coal series, scattered on all its hill sides and valleys; and mingling with the debris of the beds of shale and sandstone that lie above and below them, constitute a soil of great excellence, that has within itself the renovating power to prevent its exhaustion under the most constant culture. When thoroughly tested, seven-eighths of the soil of Ohio will be found well adapted to the permanent production of wheat.

On the south-east and south, Ohio has a river-shore four hundred and fifty miles in length, which is visited by steamers from four to eight months of every year. Its interior streams, though worthless for navigation, are invaluable as feeders for canals, and for the water-power which they almost everywhere afford. By far the greatest concentration of capital is in the south-western portion of the state, in and around Cincinnati. Cleveland and the country around it may be ranked the second in the state for wealth and business; Zanesville forms the third focus of wealth, and on account of the fine beds of coal and iron in the surrounding country, bids fair to become extensively engaged in manufacturing. Trumbull, Ashtabula, Geauga, and Portage, are rich in fine cattle and the productions of the dairy. The south-eastern and central counties constitute at present the most productive wheat region in the United States. The Scioto valley is distinguished for its corn, cattle, and hogs, which it produces in great abundance. The north-western quarter of the state is too new to have acquired much wealth of any kind; but when well settled it will be second to none but the south-west, and it may even overtake that rich and beautiful section. Its position for commerce and manufactures is remarkably good, and its soil will yield abundantly all the productions grown in other parts of the state.

Ohio has twenty-five millions of acres, nearly every acre of which may be cheaply brought into tillage, and its average fertility exceeds that of the best interval lands or primitive countries. If it were all under culture in wheat, it might produce five hundred millions of bushels, being nearly five times as much as is grown in the United States. It is fully able to sustain in comfort and happiness ten millions of people; and with that number it would average but 250 to the square mile, or one person to every 2½ acres. In climate we believe no other state equals it for mildness and uniformity. Its winter cold and its summer

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heat are greatly tempered on the north by the extensive body of water which bounds it in that direction, and its southern part has the advantage of the soft breezes from the Gulf. Taken as a whole, it is probably not excelled, if it is equaled, in the healthfulness of its climate by any sister state. Its position among the states would seem to give it a better title to be called the Keystone State than Pennsylvania; for it holds a middle ground between the north-east and north-west; and should Canada become an integral part of this country, Ohio will be more central than any other state. Before that time arrives, she bids fair to have more natural and artificial ways of intercourse, connecting her with the north and south, the east and west, to the farthest bounds of the nation, than any other of the confederacy. The Ohio river gives her southern border cheap intercourse with all the states of the Mississippi basin, extending westward to the foot of the Rocky Mountains, southward to the Gulf, and north to the Falls of St. Anthony. Lake Erie furnishes to her northern counties still superior facilities for intercourse with the north-west to the 49th degree of latitude, and towards the north-east to the ocean, and by means of the Erie canal to the eastern states. Her artificial ways to connect these natural highroads, and to give all portions of her people easy access to them, are honorable to her industry and enterprise. The Ohio canal, begun in 1825 and completed in 1832, is 309 miles long, 40 feet wide at the water surface, and 4 feet deep. Its branches, beginning at the south, are: 1st, the Columbus feeder, 9 miles long; 2nd, the Hocking canal, 56 miles; 3rd, the Muskingum improvement, 91 miles; 4th, the Walhonding canal, 25 miles; 5th, the Canton side-cut, 19 miles; and the Mahoning canal, 87 miles—making in all 596 miles of artificial navigation in eastern Ohio, terminating in Cleveland, and touching the Ohio river at Portsmouth and Marietta. The Mahoning canal is connected with the Pennsylvania improvements, and with them makes a continuous line of artificial highway to Philadelphia. The Wabash and Erie canal, from its eastern termination to its junction with the Miami, 68 miles, is more than double the size of the Ohio; and thence to the state line, 20 miles, it is fifty feet wide and five feet deep, where it is met by the Indiana portion of the same size to Fort Wayne. The Wabash and Erie canal in Ohio, with its side-cuts, is 91 miles long. The Miami canal, which joins it 8½ miles above Defiance, is 170 miles in length, and has navigable feeders: 1st, the Sidney feeder, 13 miles; 2nd, the Warren county canal, 22 miles; and the Whitewater canal, 25 miles,—in all, 321 miles of navigable canal within the western part of the state, and terminating at the western extremity of Lake Erie.

From the above it appears that Ohio has within her borders, including the three-mile Milan canal, 920 miles of navigable canals, built at an expense of seventeen millions of dollars."

TOLLS RECEIVED IN 1851.

Ohio Canal	$436,009 91
Muskingum improvement	48,418 30
Hocking Canal	11,814 87
Walhonding Canal	2,615 42
Miami and Erie Canal	357,494 25
Total	$856,352 75

RAIL-ROADS.—Ohio stands second in number of miles of rail-road in operation, New-York having 2,150, and Ohio 1,418. Pennsylvania has 1,211, Massachusetts, 1,140, and Georgia stands next, 857.—New-York has 1,004 miles in progress, and Ohio 1,736, placing the Empire and Buckeye states on precisely the same figures, when roads completed and in progress are added—3,154 miles. We give from the American Rail-road Journal the roads completed and in progress in Ohio:—

RAIL-ROADS IN OHIO.

Names of Rail-roads.	Miles completed.	In progress.
Cleveland and Columbus	135	—
Columbus and Lake Erie	60	—
Dayton and Springfield branch	24	—
Findlay Branch	16	—
Little Miami	84	—
Mad River	134	—
Sandusky and Mansfield	56	—
Xenia and Columbus	54	—
Bellefontaine and Indiana	50	68
Cincinnati and Marietta	—	265
Erie and Kalamazoo	33	—
Springfield and London	—	19
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	100	—
Cleveland, Norwalk and Toledo	87	—
Cleveland, Painsville and Ashtabula	72	—
Columbus, Urbana and Piqua	—	102
Cincinnati, Wilmington & Zanesville	—	160
Cincinnati, Hamilton and Dayton	60	—
Dayton and Western	42	—
Greenville and Miami	33	—
Hamilton and Eaton	42	—
Hillsboro' and Cincinnati	37	116
Ironton	12	12
Junction	—	110
Ohio and Indiana	—	131
Ohio and Mississippi	—	20
Ohio and Pennsylvania	185	—

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Names of Rail-roads.	Miles completed.	In progress.
Ohio Central	59	82
Scioto and Hocking Valley	30	90
Steubenville and Indiana	—	150
Springfield, Mt. Vernon, & Pittsburgh	—	110
Dayton and Michigan	—	140
Hudson and Akron branch	13	50
Cincinnati and Dayton	—	52
Carrollton branch	20	—
Tuscarawas branch	20	—
Wheeling and Wellsville	38	—
Total	1,418	1,736

COAL.—"Rich as Ohio is in her arable lands and in their vast product of grain, she is not more so in that than in her mineral resources. It is almost impossible to estimate the amount of coal in the state. It is nearly incredible when we come to estimate it in a single county. Take, for example, the county of Tuscarawas, on the Ohio canal. This county has 550 square miles, and coal may be obtained on every mile of it. In Professor Mather's valuable Report on Geology, it is estimated that this county has imbedded in it more than *eighty thousand millions of bushels of coal!*—enough to supply the state, should its population be quadrupled for centuries to come. So the county of Muskingum can furnish *ten thousand millions of bushels.* These are interior counties, which at present supply almost nothing compared with the counties of Meigs, Athens, and Summit. Coal may be found in twenty counties—comprising a belt, commencing on the Ohio river, from the Scioto to the Hockhocking, and stretching a little east of north to the Lake. The principal mines are those of Pomeroy in Meigs county, Nelsonville, in Athens, and Tallmadge, in Summit; but coal is mined in small quantities in various other places in the coal region."

The following tabular view of the increased product of coal, compiled from statistical documents, is very nearly correct:

In the above-mentioned number of counties:—

Years.	No. of bush.	Years.	No. of bush.
1840	2,382,368	1847	5,084,823
1843	2,907,805	1848	6,538,968

The comparison shows that:

From 1840 to 1843 the increase was.....24 per ct.
" 1843 to 1847 " " .....65 "
" 1847 to 1848 " " .....28 "

By the year 1860, the coal production of Ohio will probably exceed twenty millions of bushels per annum.

The following tables are from the census report of 1850:

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS OF OHIO.

Acres of land improved	9,730,650
Value of farming implements and machinery	$12,716,153
Value of live stock	$43,276,187
Number of bushels of wheat	14,967,056
" " Indian corn	59,788,750
Pounds of tobacco	10,480,967
Pounds of wool	10,089,607
Wine (gallons)	44,834
Butter (pounds)	34,180,458
Cheese (pounds)	21,350,478
Hay (tons)	1,360,636
Dew-rotted hemp (tons)	628
Water-rotted hemp (tons)	464
Flaxseed (bushels)	185,598
Maple sugar (pounds)	4,521,643
Value of home-made manufactures	$1,696,601

NUMBER OF MANUFACTORIES.

Cotton	8	Pig iron	35
Woolen	130	Wrought iron	11
Castings	183		

COTTON GOODS.

Capital invested		$297,000
Bales of cotton		4,270
Tons of coal		2,152
Value of raw material		$237,060
Number of hands employed	males	132
	females	269
Average wages per month	males	$16 60
	females	$9 05
Value of entire product		$394,700
Yards of sheeting, &c		280,000
Pounds of yarn		433,000

WOOLEN GOODS.

Capital invested		$870,220
Pounds of wool used		1,657,726
Tons of coal		2,110
Value of raw material		$578,423
Number of hands employed	males	903
	females	298
Average wages per month	males	$20 14
	females	$10 44
Value of entire products		$1,111,027
Yards of cloth manufactured		1,374,087
Pounds of yarn		65,000

PIG IRON.

Capital invested	$1,503,000
Tons of ore used	140,610
Tons of mineral coal	21,730
Bushels of coke and charcoal	5,428,800
Value of raw material, fuel, &c	$630,037
Number of hands employed	2,415
Average wages per month	$24 48
Tons of pig iron made	52,658
Value of entire products	$1,255,850

CASTINGS.

Capital invested	$2,063,650
Tons of pig iron	37,555
" of old metal	1,843
" of ore	2,000
" of mineral coal	30,006
Bushels of coke and charcoal	355,120
Value of raw material, fuel, &c	$1,199,796
Number of hands employed	2,758
Average wages per month	$27 32
Tons of castings made	37,399
Value of other products	$208,700
" of entire products	$3,069,350

WROUGHT IRON.

Capital invested	$620,800
Tons of pig metal	13,675
" of blooms used	2,900
" of mineral coal	22,755

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Bushels of coke and charcoal	466,900
Value of raw material	$604,493
Number of hands employed	708
Average wages per month	$33 61
Tons of wrought iron made	14,416
Value of entire products	$1,076,192

POPULATION OF OHIO.

Years.	Population.	Ratio of increase.
1800	45,365	—
1810	230,760	408.7
1820	581,434	152
1830	937,903	61.3
1840	1,519,467	62
1850	1,980,408	30.33

No. of voters	353,568
Representatives	21
Fractions	12,372
Deaths in 1850	28,949
Ratio to the living	68.41

BANKING INSTITUTIONS OF OHIO.—It appears, by the annual official report of the state of these institutions, made up to the 1st November, 1852, that there are now sixty-eight banks in the state, viz.:—

1. Five of the original chartered institutions, including the Life Insurance and Trust Company.

2. Eleven independent banks, doing business under a general law, and depositing bonds as collaterals per issues.

3. Forty branches of the state bank of Ohio, each independent in itself, its capital, loans, profits, &c., but under the occasional supervision of the Board of Control, and each liable to contribute for losses to the billholders by any failure of one or more of the branches.

4. Twelve free banks, established under a recent law of Ohio.

	11 Independ.	40 State.	5 Old.	12 Free.
Capital	$749,180	4,456,675	1,547,250	361,730
Circulation	1,144,512	8,120,813	1,488,470	609,670
Safety Fund	1,143,410	50,088	—	444,490
Due banks	164,815	354,960	913,428	90,896
Deposits	1,502,027	3,546,650	1,213,690	912,676
Surplus	555,412	237,095	328,770	8,487
Bills payable	85,972	151,418	12,048	22,205
Discounts	280	36,390	32,826	14,473
Dividends	29,271	140,928	3,676	23,063
Miscellaneous	73,140	42,740	22,608	—
Totals	$4,792,165	17,158,614	5,558,060	2,497,400
Loans	$2,202,500	10,346,815	3,169 038	1,068,900
Specie	269,178	1,854,415	384,060	128,465
Bank-notes	304,210	817,110	770,711	180,528
Due by banks	120,404	636,496	121,391	166,034
Eastern funds	315,250	2,025,765	660,460	215,938
Checks, &c.	22,054	67,817	—	6,252
State bonds	1,195,930	903,524	—	703,985
Real property	105,115	171,637	136,390	19,366
Miscellaneous	197,210	325,094	316,010	12,920
Totals	$4,732,164	17,118,613	5,580,160	2,397,398

While the deposits amount to $6,972,000, and the aggregate circulation is $11,373,000, it will be seen that the banks have specie on hand to the amount of $2,631,000, or about 25 per cent. of circulation, and deposits in the Eastern cities to the extent of $3,287,900. In addition to which, the state holds collateral bonds to the amount of $2,803,000, to meet the issues of these institutions.

ART. II.—FLORIDA—ITS POSITION, RESOUROES, AND DESTINY.

THERE is not perhaps any state of the confederacy that can be more benefited by the construction of judicious works of internal improvement, and by the improvement of its harbors, than Florida.—Thirty-one years have elapsed, since the provinces of East and West Florida were taken possession of by the United States under the treaty of cession concluded in 1819. No works of internal improvement, except the "King's road" in East Florida, and a short and small canal, (never completed,) near Lake *Okechoke;* and De Brahme's surveys in 1765, &c., were commenced by the British or Spanish governments, whilst the provinces were under the control of either of those powers; and since their transfer to the United States, various circumstances have combined to retard the development of their valuable commercial, agricultural, and other resources.

The fortifications then near Pensacola, that at St. Mark's, the fort at St. Augustine, and an old defence called Fort George, near the mouth of the river St. John's, were all the military defences worth mentioning existing in the provinces at the cession. The United States have since established a navy yard, and works for the repair of vessels of war, and erected other forts, and built a naval and marine hospital near Pensacola; are building fortifications at the Tortugas and at Key West; and near the mouth of the St. Mary's River; and have

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placed the fort at St. Augustine in good condition; but no other part of the extensive and exposed gulf and sea coast of the state is in any degree fortified; nor are there proper preparations made for the construction, at an early period, of such defences. The entire Atlantic and gulf coast of the United States, from Passamaquoddy to the Rio del Norte, is about 3,500 miles. and of this extent the coast and reefs of Florida, from St. Mary's around the Tortugas to the Perdido, comprise upwards of 1,200 miles, extending over 8 deg. of latitude and 7½ deg. of longitude, being more than one third of the whole coast.

Within a few years past, our "*coast survey*" has been commenced; but with meagre and inadequate appropriations; not at all in just proportion either to the necessities of the work, or to the amounts yielded for such surveys in other sections, less important to the whole country. No canal or rail-road has been constructed by the federal government in Florida, but the expenditure of a few thousands of dollars, (whilst Florida was a *territory*,) for the removal of obstructions in some of the rivers and harbors, and for two or three partial surveys of important routes of a national character, has given rise to allegations, that profuse grants have been made for her benefit. She has, too, been unjustly reproached as being the cause of the immense expenditures so profitlessly made in the Seminole war; and by some she is held responsible for all the folly, waste, extravagance, impositions, peculations and frauds, committed in that war by the *employés* of the federal government, though not citizens of the state. A similar class have had the infamous audacity to impute to her people the purposed origination of the war, and a desire for its protraction, as a source of pecuniary gain. A devastated frontier of several hundred miles, and the butchery by the savages of hundreds of men, women and children, throughout the state, and the utter ruin brought upon many of her citizens by that war, ought to be sufficient to prove the falsity of this accusation. Those who have propagated, or countenanced such unscrupulous slanders against the people of Florida, have not, when challenged, exposed a single case in which any citizen of the state has obtained payment of any demand against the United States, founded on fraud; and the public records of Congress, and of the federal departments, will verify the declaration, that scores of Floridians have been refused payment of just claims, or postponed on the most frivolous pretexts and discreditable suspicions.

If attempts have been made in any instance, by individuals claiming to belong to Florida, to obtain from the federal treasury claims not founded in strict justice; such dishonorable exceptions do not excuse wholesale imputations against the citizens of the state generally, nor justify the excitement of prejudices against them, and the withholding payment of just demands.

Both of the provinces, when acquired by the United States, (excepting only a small portion of country around the city of Pensacola, at the western extremity, and the region contiguous to the city of St. Augustine, and to the lower part of the river St. John's, in East Florida,) were in the possession of warlike and hostile bands of savages. The territories, when ceded, were covered with British and Spanish titles to lands, some for tracts of several thousands of acres. The "Forbes Grant," extending from the St. Mark's to the west side of the Apalachicola river, and including also the site of the city of Apalachicola and several thousands of acres contiguous thereto, further west, and the adjacent islands of St. George and St. Vincent, and Dog Island, and reaching upwards of sixty miles from the coast into the interior, covered an area of upwards of one million two hundred thousand acres. Most of the lands which had not been previously granted were included in the concessions by the king of Spain to the duke of Alagon, the Chevalier de Vargas, and the count of Punon Rostros, clandestinely made, whilst the treaty of cession was being negotiated, and which, though annulled by a codicil to the treaty, are still claimed by the grantees, and those to whom the grants have been assigned, to be valid and in force. A decision has recently been given by the United States Court in Florida, in a suit brought upon the Alagon or "Hackley grant," against its validity. The procrastination, since 1821, of the definitive ascertainment and confirmation or rejection of alleged Spanish titles, have been a serious evil to the state, and aided to retard its settlement and progress.

The removal of many of the Indians

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from the upper and middle sections to below 28 deg. north lat., on the Peninsula, was effected about 1825, under the treaty made with the chiefs at Camp Moultrie, in 1823. Though this measure opened a large portion of the country to settlement, and, when adopted, was generally commended, experience has proved that it was injudicious policy. It has been the prolific cause of subsequent troubles and of great sacrifice of life and property by the people of Florida, and of immense expenditures by the federal government—the responsibility for which, as before stated, has been most unjustly attributed to the inhabitants of the state. The measure referred to has put back the state at least the fifth of a century. Four large bands or towns of Indians, located on the Apalachicola, remained there till 1834, when they were removed peaceably, in conformity with treaty stipulations, to the Indian territory west of the Arkansas. In 1835 the Seminoles, Miccossukies and other tribes *concentrated*, as above stated, near the fastnesses of the peninsula, in resistance to the enforcement of treaties stipulating for their emigration west of the Arkansas, commenced predatory hostilities that soon ripened into open war, which lasted for seven years, and was attended with but limited and partial creditable success to the federal government, or to its officers, either in arms or diplomacy. The best measure adopted by the United States during the war, was the "armed occupation" act of 1842; though the policy pursued by the federal government, in the execution of the law, until the act of the 1st July, 1848, was passed, decreased its benefits. The contest was abandoned by the United States in 1842, an "*arrangement*" with the yet unsubdued Indians then being made (similar to two others after 1835, which they had violated,) by the general officer commanding the United States regular forces in Florida; and which last "arrangement," in disregard of the previous treaties, stipulated that those Indians, headed by the chiefs Arpiarka and Bowlegs, might remain on the peninsula! Their whole number, it is estimated, cannot exceed eight hundred, and they are on paper restricted to prescribed limits, embracing many hundreds of square miles in area. Since that "arrangement," repeated disturbances, attended by bloodshed and destruction of property, have occurred, owing it is alleged, by the citizens, to the depredations of the Indians outside of the country reserved for them; and, on the other hand, asserted by those inimical to the people of Florida, to be occasioned by the encroachments of the frontier population upon the Indian reservation. The officers of the federal government have not restrained the Indians to the limits of the "reservation;" and while this duty is neglected, collisions and conflicts between the savages and the settlers near to the lines are inevitable. Means are now being adopted to effect the removal of the few hundred warriors and women and children yet remaining, (and it is said in a state of destitution,) on the lower end of the peninsula, and which efforts, it is hoped, may be successful; but if they fail, prompt and efficient measures will certainly be taken by the state government to abate this evil, so blighting to the prosperity of Florida.

It is a striking fact in the history of the provinces of Florida, that since their first discovery by the Spaniards, nearly three centuries and a half ago, they have never enjoyed twenty successive years of peace and tranquillity undisturbed by domestic warlike conflicts or foreign hostile invasion. They have changed owners and masters several times. The late disturbances with the Seminoles brought destruction and ruin upon many Floridians, and the insecurity to life and property since 1835, not only deterred emigration to Florida, but hundreds of worthy and valuable citizens abandoned their plantations, and with their families went to other southern states, where they would not be daily liable to massacre and devastation, owing to the neglect by the federal government of the duty of protection.

The creation by the territorial legislature of some ten or a dozen banks, to three of which were given territorial bonds or guaranties to raise their capital, and the failure of all these corporations prior to, or in 1837; the inability of any of them to retrieve their credit, and the liability imputed by the foreign holders of the "faith bonds" and "guaranties" to the state of Florida, since organized, for several millions of dollars, has been a serious drawback to the settlement and growth of the state. The state constitution expressly inhibits the state legislature from levying any tax for the re-

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demption of these imputed obligations; those who effected the adoption of such restriction, contending that the people of the state are not justly responsible for the improvident acts, allowed by Congress, of the territorial authorities, who, they insist, were the creatures solely of federal legislation and federal executive power, and also that the bonds were purchased by the holders in disregard of the conditions of the acts of incorporation, and with full knowledge of all the facts. Some contend, also, that the territorial banks were created without any competent legal power in the territorial legislative council therefor.

The annexation of Texas first, and the subsequent acquisition of California, and the discovery of gold there, also diverted emigration from Florida to those states.

These events have greatly retarded the growth and prosperity of the state; and the present backward condition of her internal improvements, should not be mentioned, without also adverting, at the same time, to them, as *her apologies.*

Her people are as public spirited and as enterprising as those of any other section, but their energies have been stifled by the series of untoward circumstances alluded to. Blessed with a genial climate and a fruitful soil, and advantages for improvement, with facility and cheapness unsurpassed by any country, it is believed Florida is destined in time to become a populous, and one of the richest and most prosperous states of the Union.

The severe restrictions imposed in 1822 and 1834 upon our Cuba and Porto Rico trade, are ably and fully exposed by Senator Mallory, in his recent pamphlet on that subject. They are a serious grievance to the state. But for those restrictions, we should sell annually to those islands many thousands of dollars worth of agricultural products, stock, &c. The restrictions should be forthwith abrogated, if the commercial and agricultural interests of the gulf and Atlantic southern states are entitled to any consideration; and indeed the dictates of sound policy and equal justice to every section of the Union, imperatively demand the repeal of those laws.

It is proper also to state here, that the failure of the federal government to fulfil in good faith its obligation to indemnify Spanish inhabitants for the spoliations of 1812, 1813, 1814, and 1818, when the provinces (then belonging to Spain) were invaded by the troops of the United States; and the withholding of protection to the citizens of Florida during the protracted Indian hostilities which commenced in 1835, and the refusal to indemnify the many hundreds of citizens whose property was devastated by the savages, owing to the flagrant neglect of the federal government to fulfil its duty of affording proper protection to them; and likewise the refusal to pay others their just dues for supplies furnished to troops in service, and for services rendered the federal government; are all matters that have been severely felt in Florida, and have all materially retarded its prosperity.

The only rail-road in Florida, now in operation, is the Tallahassee and St. Mark's road. It was built about 1834, by an incorporated company. It now runs from Tallahassee to the sea-port, at the site of the ancient Spanish fortress of St. Mark's, at the junction of the St. Mark's and Wakulla rivers, a distance of about 23 miles, and is in good condition. Between twenty and thirty thousand bales of cotton, and large amounts of other produce, and of merchandise, are annually transported over this road. It originally crossed the St. Mark's river, and run to a point on the Bay of St. Mark's or Apalache, a short distance below its present terminus, where a flourishing village soon sprang up, but which was in 1843 totally demolished by an unprecedented hurricane and flood from the gulf, by which many lives were lost. This rail-road is now owned chiefly by Gen. Call. The cost of construction, of rebuilding it, and of repairs, has probably been $250,000, but it is generally considered to be a good investment. If it is intersected by the contemplated great central road hereafter spoken of, it will increase in value. The Georgia 'Brunswick Company, hereafter alluded to, it is understood, desire to connect with this road; and projects have been in contemplation to extend the Tallahassee road to Thomasville, Georgia, and to other points in Georgia, without reference to the Brunswick Company. Such extension will add to its importance.

Plank roads are being projected at several detached points in Florida, for short distances, and one several miles in length is now in course of construction

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from New Port (a rival town to St. Mark's, situated a few miles above it, on the St. Mark's river) to the Georgia line.

A small private rail-road was constructed a few years ago, leading to Forsyth and Simpson's extensive manufactories and mills, near Bagdad, on Black Water river, West Florida, but it became useless, and has been taken up.

In 1835 a company was incorporated to build a canal or rail-road, to connect the Apalachicola river (through lake Wimico) with St. Joseph's bay; at which it was intended to establish a shipping port for the produce brought down the Chattahooche and Flint and Apalachicola rivers, and from the surrounding country; and for receiving and forwarding merchandise to the interior; and as a rival to the city of Apalachicola. A road about nine miles long was put in operation, but in consequence of the difficulties attending the passage of large steamboats through the shoal waters of the lake, it was abandoned in 1839; and another road running from St. Joseph, north, about 30 miles, to Iola, a village established on the west side of the Apalachicola a mile above the Chipola river, was constructed at an expense of upwards of $300,000 dollars. A bridge of superior construction, several hundred yards in length, was thrown across the Chipola, and the rail-road continued upon it. A town was soon built at the southern terminus, on the bay of St. Joseph, which bay has an excellent harbor, easily accessible to merchant vessels of the first class usually employed in southern trade. In 1841 the rail-road, in consequence of pecuniary embarrassments of the company, occasioned by its immense expenditure, was abandoned; and soon after the rails were taken up, and sold to a rail-road company in Georgia. Many persons contend that the site has superior advantages, and that with judicious management it would have succeeded; and that it may be resuscitated at some future period, under favorable auspices. The proper and judicious improvement of the harbor of Apalachicola would of course prevent this, and especially if the inland communication along the coast (hereafter mentioned) from South Cape to the Mississippi, is undertaken. Apalachicola now ships to foreign ports and coastwise upwards of $6,000,000 worth of cotton and other produce annually, and receives a corresponding amount of merchandise for transportation into the interior, and has besides considerable trade.

Some miles of the Florida, Alabama, and Georgia rail-road, near Pensacola, was graded, as hereinafter stated, several years ago, but that work has been suspended for the present.

Excepting some local improvements at the city of St. Augustine, made by the federal government, and which were necessary for the preservation of its property there, the foregoing, it is believed, comprise all the works of the character heretofore constructed, or partially constructed, in Florida.

Florida has several capacious and secure harbors, and of easy entrance. No less than twenty-six important rivers: the Perdido, the Escambia, the Blackwater and Yellow rivers, (through St. Mary de Galvez bay,) the Choctawhatchie, the Apalachicola, (into which flow the Chattahooche and the Flint,) the Ockolockonee, the St. Mark's and Wakulla, (through St. Mark's or Apalachee bay,) the Wacissa and Oscilla, the Suwanee or Little St. John's, and its tributaries, the Withlacoochy, and Alapahau, and Santaffee, the Weethlockoochee or Amixura, the Hillsborough, the Nokoshotee or Manatee, the Talachopko or Peas creek, the Caloosahatche, the Otsego, the two Caximbas, the Galivans river, Harney's river, and Shark river, besides other streams of lesser note, flow from, or through the state, into the Gulf of Mexico. The five first-named rivers extend into the State of Alabama. They already bear upon their waters to the Florida Gulf shipping ports valuable products, which could be greatly increased by comparatively trifling artificial "internal improvements," and the value of the public and private lands in Alabama, contiguous to them, much enhanced. The Chattahooche river is the boundary between Alabama and Georgia, and is navigable for steamboats for upwards of 150 miles northward from its junction with the Flint, where they form the Apalachicola. The Flint extends upwards of 100 miles into one of the most productive sections of Georgia. The Ockolockony, the Oscilla, the Suwanee, and the two first named of its tributaries, all extend into Georgia; and if all of them are not susceptible by artificial improvement of being made navigable for steamboats of a large class,

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they can be made equal to most of the ordinary canals in operation in the middle states, to within a few miles of their respective sources, in affording facilities for the transportation of produce to the coast, and of merchandise into the interior. Every one of the rivers named, not only at their respective outlets to the gulf, but with reference to their navigation in the interior, are susceptible of artificial improvement, the beneficial effects of which would be commensurate to the expense incurred. The country at large would not only be benefited by the promotion and extension of the agricultural and commercial interests of the contiguous region, and the development of new sources of wealth and prosperity, that the improvements suggested would cause; but the facilities for cheap and ready defence of an extensive coast frontier, (now greatly exposed to a foreign maritime enemy,) that such improvements would afford, would be of incalculable national advantage. In fact, the federal treasury, as to most of them, would be more than reimbursed for all outlays (if it undertook the works) by the enhanced value of the public lands in their vicinity, and their consequent increased] sales. And if undertaken by a state or states, or by corporate associations, and a proper portion of the lands were granted in aid of the works, the United States would be remunerated by the increased value of the portion retained. The states of Alabama and Georgia are directly interested in the improvements referred to, to an extent quite equal to the interest of the State of Florida. Some years since, the legislature of the last-named state directed an examination of the Ockolockony river, with a view to its improvement; and it has also, at different times, made examinations with a view to the improvement of the navigation of the Chattahooche and Flint rivers; and it has expended some money on both. Alabama has as yet done but little to promote the interests of her south-eastern counties, in obtaining facilities for the transportation of produce to the gulf, through Florida.

It is believed that the improvement of the bays and harbors, and of their outlets to the gulf or sea, can be rendered easier, less expensive, and more substantial and permanent, by the adoption of the system of closing unnecessary delta or outlets; and instead of removing bars or deepening channels by excavation, making portions of them positive and immovable obstructions, thereby confining the waters to as few channels as possible, and causing them to force and deepen those channels for their debouchement to the gulf or sea. Especially on the southern Atlantic coast, and in the gulf, is this plan deemed to be the most eligible.

Several different examinations, reconnoissances, or surveys, have been made of some of these rivers and their outlets, and reports furnished as to their susceptibility of advantageous improvement, which can be found by reference to the public documents, of which a list is annexed in note A.

That an inland water communication from the Mississippi river to South Cape, in Middle Florida, could be obtained for steamboats of a medium size, and coasting craft, was many years ago maintained by high authority. The expense necessary to obtain such inland communication, by canalling between the nearly continuous line of bays, or sounds, running parallel with the gulf coast, from South Cape to the Mississippi, and by closing the mouths of one or two streams and stopping a few shoal inlets, is really trifling, when the immense advantages to flow from such a work is estimated. But I will not dilate on this undertaking. The public documents, enumerated in note A, afford full information on the subject, and demonstrate, to my judgment, the entire practicability of effecting results especially beneficial to the western states, and to Alabama and Florida; and when such communication is extended across the peninsula to the ocean, important to the Atlantic states.

On the Atlantic or eastern coast of Florida, above or north of Cape Sable, there are several important streams, which could also be improved by widening, straightening, and deepening, and by removing obstructions in the navigation, at comparatively trifling expense, considering the benefits that would result therefrom, in the same way above mentioned.

The sound behind the tongue of land terminating at Cape Florida, receives the Miami river, Little river, Arch creek, Rio Ratones, and Snake creek, and extends several miles north, parallel with the sea-shore. New River Inlet,

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Hillsborough river and inlet, Jupiter Inlet, St. Lucia river and inlet, Halifax river and inlet, Mosquito river and inlet, Matanzas river and inlet, St. Augustine harbor, North river, San Pablo creek, St. John's river, Nassau bay and river, and the river St. Mary's, (the latter being the boundary between Florida and Georgia,) are all important points on the Atlantic coast. As is heretofore stated, in respect of the gulf coast between South Cape in Middle Florida, and the Mississippi, a nearly continuous line of inland "sound navigation," for coasting craft and steamboats of the medium size, drawing six or seven feet, it has been suggested, (and with great plausibility,) may be effected from Cape Florida to the mouth of the St. Mary's river, by closing securely and permanently some of the inlets mentioned, and by excavating less than thirty miles of canal, and by widening and deepening, in a few places, the natural channels of the interior communications now existing; being the "sounds," and also the "lakes" and rivers adjacent to, and extending (with but trifling interruption) along the entire eastern coast of the state, and running parallel with the seashore, at a short distance therefrom, in the interior. And it has been predicted, that after such improvement, the natural effect of the tides from the sea, through the "inlets" remaining open, and of the accumulation of the waters flowing into the sounds from the interior, and restrained to such outlet to the sea, and the currents caused thereby, would be, not only to increase the depth of the channels of the sounds, but to deepen several feet, and keep open the entrances from the ocean at St. Augustine and St. John's; and to such extent, as always to admit large vessels adapted to foreign trade. The entire expense of such improvements, it is estimated, would not exceed two hundred and fifty thousand dollars. But if it should be three or four times that sum, it would not equal the value of the benefits resulting in a national point of view, and to other states besides Florida. Such improvements would render the entire coast, from St. Augustine to Cape Florida, forever impregnable to any enemy, and even exempt it from annoyance, without the necessity of fortifications, except at the outlets to the sea, left open, and deepened, as suggested. And many coasting vessels from the eastward, going southward, might, by such inland communication, avoid the necessity of stemming the strong current of the "gulf stream;" of crossing the Bahama Banks; and also the other hazardous experiment of hugging Cape Carnaveral, and keeping close to the Florida coast, in trying which, so many such vessels bound southward are wrecked. The documents referred to in note A. will give valuable information on all these points.

The clearing out of the small streams emptying into the sounds at the southern part of the peninsula, and the connection of the sources of those streams by canals with the interior and fresh waters of the Pahhayoke or Everglades, covering an area of at least eighty by thirty miles, and with the large and deep fresh-water lake Okeechobe, further north, and with the interior river Kissimme, running into said lake from Tohopekaliga lake and other lakes, (the waters extending ninety miles north from the mouth of the river,) would not only reclaim vast quantities of rich sugar lands, now submerged by the overflow of the waters, at certain seasons, but would be the means of facile interior communication, and also between every part of the interior region and the sea-coast, and afford easy and cheap transportation for all the produce intended for exportation to foreign ports or shipments coastwise. The extensive swamp called Halpatioke would become dry and cultivable. And the character of the country is such, that the cost of such improvement would not be great. The upper soil is light and easy of excavation; the substratum of clay with which it is underlaid is tenacious, and prevents the difficulties so often caused by caving or sliding. The face of the country is level, and no material obstructions arising from rocks will be found. The principal obstacle to the undertaking is, that it is of a character which renders it necessary that every portion of it should be commenced and carried on to completion, simultaneously and speedily, requiring a large laboring force, and united, combined, and concurrent action.

So, too, on the western coast of the peninsula, the deepening of the outlets and the connection of the rivers emptying into the gulf with the same interior

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waters above mentioned, would be equally beneficial. The vast swamp called the Big Cypress, or Atseenhoofa, could be reclaimed; and the completion of such works on both sides would probably effect a means of passage for small coasting vessels and steamers across the peninsula, thereby avoiding the perilous navigation of the keys and reefs farther south, and extending south-westwardly upwards of a hundred miles from Cape Florida and Cape Sable, into the gulf.

The improvements suggested in the two last paragraphs are subjects of comment in the valuable documents annexed to a report made by Senator Breese of Illinois, from the Committee of Public Lands of the Senate, at the 1st session, 32d Congress, August 28, 1848, Doc. No. 242. Other important information as to the agricultural capabilities, and products, and trade, and fisheries, and other resources of Florida, is to be found in these documents.

On the peninsula, a rail-road from Tampa bay to the navigable waters of St. John's, near the head of the navigation of that river, has been spoken of, and will probably in a very few years be undertaken. When the adjacent country becomes more densely populated, such a work will certainly be constructed.

Another road from Tampa, running northwardly up the peninsula, avoiding the watercourses on both sides, and extending as far up as Jacksonville, has been strongly urged, and has many advocates.

Above Tampa, on the peninsula, various projects have been suggested to connect the lower with the upper region of the peninsula, and to connect the Gulf of Mexico with the Atlantic.

It is said that the head-waters of the Kissimme can be connected with those at the sources of the St. John's river, so as to be navigable for boats transporting produce.

A canal for boats or barges drawing four or five feet, has been spoken of as practicable at small expense from the Ocklawaha, a branch of the noble river St. John's, to the navigable waters of the Weethlockoochee or Amixura.

A canal from the sound near Smyrna, on the eastern edge of the state, to lakes which are the head-waters of the St. John's river, a few miles west of the sea-coast, or from a point on the sound to the same waters, some distance farther south, has also been suggested.

A rail-road from Pilatka, on the St. John's river, to such point as may be ascertained to be the most eligible, on the gulf coast, near Cedar Keys, or near Waccassa bay, has likewise been spoken of, as has also a similar work from Jacksonville, on the St. John's; and also one from the mouth of the St. Mary's to the same points on the gulf. In fact, several different rail-roads from the west side of the St. John's river, farther down to the gulf, are in contemplation.

One from Picolati, intended to extend east to St. Augustine; one from the head of navigation on Black creek; and one from Jacksonville, or a point near that town, to some point on the gulf, or on the Suwanee river, have been spoken of and likewise a rail-road from St. Mary's river to the Suwanee. Charters have been obtained in past years from the Florida legislature for some of the last-mentioned works, to be undertaken by corporate associations, but none of them, it is believed, have as yet had any route properly surveyed, preparatory to carrying out their charters and commencing such work practically. The routes of two of these contemplated works are laid down on the map inclosed, of one of which it is understood some years since a reconnoissance was made by an officer of the United States army, (Captain Blake,) since killed in battle in Mexico. The same officer made a partial survey of the harbor of Tampa and of a portion of the eastern coast of the state, and of the sounds contiguous thereto, which are referred to in the said list of documents marked A.

The "through cut," or "great ship canal," or "ship rail-way," across the head of the peninsula, has been written about a great deal within the last thirty years. It has formed the subject of congressional speeches and reports, and of newspaper essays, and many years since a board of the United States Engineers, at the head of which was General Bernard, made a partial survey, with a view to ascertain its practicability and its cost. His report, and maps of his surveys, are to be found in vol. iv. Ex. Doc. 2d Sess. 20th Cong., 1828-9, Doc. No. 147. Different termini have been indicated on the gulf side, for this work. The St. John's river has been generally mentioned as

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the most eligible terminus of said work, on the eastern side. An appropriation of $20,000 will probably be made at this session of Congress, for the completion of the survey for this work.

Whilst the certain practicability of effecting the completion of this stupendous and magnificent project, to the full extent anticipated by some of its advocates, has by many been deemed questionable, (and it seems General Bernard did not believe in its favorable success,) yet other disinterested and impartial persons, of a high order of intelligence, and possessing accurate knowledge of the location through which the canal must be constructed, and of the soils to be excavated, confidently contend that it is entirely practicable. The immense cost of the construction of a ship canal is an insuperable obstacle to its being undertaken by the State of Florida, or by any association of individuals there. The state constitution contains provisions virtually restraining the legislature from borrowing money on the faith and credit of the state, even for such purpose.

Therefore, if such work is undertaken, it must be by the general government, and upon the most considerate estimates, founded upon previous examinations and accurate surveys, by scientific and impartial engineers. The same observations apply to the construction of the "ship rail-way" that has been suggested. If the construction of either of these works is ascertained to be feasible, it will be beyond all question the most important undertaking of the kind in the United States. No one can deny that its beneficial results will be eminently "national." Whensoever any route inside of the Gulf of Mexico, whether through Texas, through eastern Mexico, or by Vera Cruz, or by Tehuantepec, to the Pacific, may be established, a passage across Florida, as a means of speedy and safe travel, and for the transportation of merchandise, will become imperatively necessary to enable the eastern and middle Atlantic states to participate fully in the benefits of such route. The proposed canal or road may be located on a direct and straight line drawn along the coast from Cape Hatteras (to pass which, in sailing from New-York, a considerable deflexion east must be made) to the mouth of the Rio Coatzacoalcos, on the gulf side of the isthmus of Tehuantepec.

The legislature of Louisiana, smothering all selfish local considerations, at a recent session adopted resolutions asking Congress to institute examinations as to the Florida "ship canal;" and patriotic and enterprising citizens of eastern and of western states, with wise forecast, look to the ascertainment of its practicability as a result of the highest importance to the general interests of the whole confederacy, as well as to the Atlantic, southern, northern, eastern, middle and interior states, and those on the Pacific, as to the gulf and Mississippi states. Our Atlantic merchants see that it will greatly facilitate our future trade, not only with the Pacific generally, but with China and with the East Indies.

Whatever doubts may be entertained as to the practicability of the construction and successful operation of a "ship canal" or "ship rail-way" across the peninsula, it is not doubted that canals for boats drawing six or seven feet water may be made, either from the head of navigation on Black Creek, or from one of the two southernmost prongs or branches of the St. Mary's river, or from the St. John's river, directly to the capacious, deep, and never-failing lake, called "Ocean Pond," about thirty miles westwardly of Whitesville, on Black Creek, and about forty miles from Jacksonville, on the St. John's river. From this lake it is supposed such canal can be continued to the navigable waters of the Santaffee, and by the improvement of the navigation of that river and of the Suwanee to the gulf, can also, without doubt, be constructed, and the expense is not estimated to be so great as to render it an injudicious investment. It is believed also by some persons that a similar canal for boats, commencing at the head of navigation near the great southern bend of the St. Mary's river, and running across near to the southern margin of the vast lake or swamp called Okefenokee, and directly to the head waters of the Suwanee, with proper improvements to the navigation of the St. Mary's and Suwanee rivers, is practicable, and would be highly beneficial as a means of transportation of produce, lumber, naval stores, and merchandise, and that it would also drain and reclaim tens of thousands of acres of the richest lands in that region. Such work would be greatly beneficial to the State of Georgia, which state has heretofore made

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examinations and surveys, with a view to its construction.

A rail-road has been projected from Brunswick, Georgia, to the gulf coast, on which coast different points for its termination have been indicated. It is stated that an association is now being organized to raise funds and commence such work. Some years since partial reconnoissances and some unperfected surveys were made of such work, from Brunswick, on two different routes entering Middle Florida; but from circumstances not fully understood, the commencement of the work was postponed, and the results of the surveys have never been made public. Unless the proposed work should enter Florida much farther to the east than has been stated is intended, and become connected with the great trunk or central rail-road hereafter spoken of, so that it would result to some benefit to East Florida, it will be regarded with disfavor in that section of the state, and meet with such opposition as probably will prevent its extension into the state at all. It would certainly be a competitor and rival of the Central Florida Rail-road, if allowed to abstract from it the south-western travel and transportation, for the benefit of Southern Georgia, by leaving the State of Florida in the western section.

To all the suggested improvements terminating on the gulf coast, near to the *delta* of the Suwanee, some persons have objected that formidable difficulties will be encountered to their successful operation, owing to the want of a safe and good harbor there, of easy access near to the shore for vessels drawing over seven or eight feet, and owing also to alleged hazards attending the approach to that part of the gulf coast. I do not, however, hesitate to say, that I regard these objections as fallacious; and that safe and good harbors for vessels of 12 or 15 feet draft can be found, and which can also be greatly improved by artificial means.

The first great work to be undertaken by the State of Florida is, in my judgment, unquestionably, at the present time, the Trunk or Central Rail-road, commencing at Pensacola and running eastwardly from Deerpoint, at the opposite side of Pensacola bay, along or as near the route of the old Bellamy or Federal road as is practicable, to the river St. John's, the distance being about three hundred and fifty miles. A road can be run from St. John's to St. Augustine, from Jacksonville, thirty-eight miles, and from Picolati, eighteen miles. All the different sectional interests of the upper portions of the state would be promoted by such work. Lateral rail-roads, to necessary points on the gulf coast, and to the towns where the country trade is carried on north of the main road, can be made. These lateral roads could be extended into Alabama and Georgia, and, when it may be deemed advisable, connected with the rail-roads in those states; and in a few years not merely Florida, but her conterminous sister states, will be interlaced and bound together, and mutually strengthened by bands of iron. The sugar, cotton, tobacco, rice, sisal hemp, tar, turpentine, rosin and rosinous oils and lumber, and other products of those fertile regions, can be speedily, cheaply, and safely transported to market, either on the gulf or Atlantic, or for exportation to foreign ports, or shipment coastwise, in time of war or of peace; and in time of war material aid for the defence of the coast against foreign assault at any quarter of the state can always be at once furnished from the interior. Yet in the construction of such a work the just share of the general improvement fund of the state, due to that section detached from the immediate and direct advantages and conveniences of this road, and lying farther south than its effects would be felt, should not be expended, but should be scrupulously retained for the benefit of such section. The facilities such road would afford the federal government for the cheap and rapid transportation of the mails in time of peace, and the like facilities given for the transportation in time of war for troops, munitions of war, and subsistence, would be of incalculable national benefit. The river St. John's, which is generally spoken of as the eastern terminus of the Central Rail-road, extends from its mouth three hundred miles south, running nearly in the middle of the peninsula, its sources being chains of large lakes extending south beyond the sources of the Kissimme. The bar at the entrance of the St. John's cannot ordinarily be passed by vessels drawing over thirteen feet, but inside it is navigable by vessels of twenty-five feet draft, as far up as Jacksonville, and by those

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drawing twelve feet up to Lake George, and two feet water can be had to Lake Poinsett. The tide seems to have influence at Volusia. The trade of the river at present is chiefly lumber. More than 13 large lumber mills (mostly steam) are on the river above and below Jacksonville, the principal town upon the river. About 350 vessels annually are loaded with lumber and produce on the St. John's. The quantity of lumber annually shipped from the St. John's river is estimated at 50,000,000 of feet. An effort will be made this fall to deepen the water on the bar, which it is sanguinely anticipated can be done so as to admit vessels at low water drawing 20 or 25 feet, and by an expenditure of about twenty thousand dollars. Should it be effected, though it should cost twenty times such amount, it would be a wise disposition of the money. In case this work succeeds, so soon as the great Central Road is finished to the St. John's, a large and flourishing commercial city is sure to spring up in a few years at the terminus on the river, wherever it may be.

Partial surveys of the eastern part of one proposed route for this road, terminating at Jacksonville, the prominent point on the St. John's, were made some years ago by an association of eastern capitalists, chiefly from Boston, but they have never been made public, and it is stated the association was prevented by the Indian war from progressing with the undertaking.

A rail-road has been contemplated from Pensacola, across the southern corner of Alabama, to Montgomery, Alabama, or to Columbus, Georgia, or to some point in Georgia lower down on the Chattahooche river, and to unite with some of the Georgia roads running to the Atlantic seaboard. Great interest is felt in the completion of this road at the city of Pensacola, and throughout the surrounding country, and on the different routes proposed for it; and the federal government is also deeply interested in its being finished, inasmuch as it would afford certain means for the defence and protection of the valuable public property at Pensacola, worth many millions of dollars, and as the federal treasury would be benefited by the enhanced value of the public lands in Alabama, through which the road would run, and their increased sales. On these points I refer to the documents of the department specified in note B. The surveys for the chief part of one of the contemplated routes of this road, were, it is understood, perfected some years since, and several miles of the road near to Pensacola were graded, and other work done. It has, however, been suspended for some time, awaiting the action of Congress granting the right of way through the public lands, and also grants of alternate sections along the line of the road. Bills making such grants have passed the Senate at different sessions, but as yet the association have been unable to obtain the concurrent action of both houses at the same session to the same bill.

Connected as the great Central Rail-road of the state will be, at Pensacola, (or at any of the gulf ports that may be selected,) with the commerce to distant foreign or American ports in the gulf and elsewhere, and especially with steamships to Tehuantepec so soon as the interoceanic communication is made at that isthmus, (whether the Florida road is extended to Mobile and New-Orleans or not,) it must soon become the principal line of southern and south-western travel to and from the eastern and middle states, to California and Oregon, and the Pacific generally. It is the natural and direct course of such travel. The sagacious and enterprising merchants of the Atlantic cities engaged in the Pacific trade, and in the trade to China and to the East Indies, will also soon discover such work may be used to promote their interests. Of its profitable success as a pecuniary investment, little doubt can be entertained.

A canal from St. Andrew's Bay to the Chipola river has been contemplated for many years, and an association has been incorporated to construct such work. Full surveys have been made, and the feasibility of constructing either a canal or a rail-road fully demonstrated. It is in the hands of citizens of respectability, who possess means to complete it, with such assistance as may be afforded by the general government and by the state. Extensive tracts of valuable public lands, in the vicinity of this work, have been reserved from sale by the United States for "naval purposes." These reservations are profitless, and the lands should be sold. Their being held as at present is injurious to the country in which they are situated. Sound and judicious policy demands that the federal and state governments both should encourage the speedy construction of the canal or road

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from St. Andrew's Bay. The bay has a good entrance for large vessels, and it is a safe and capacious harbor. Intersecting, as such work probably would (by an extension for a short distance into the interior), the great central state rail-road, its completion at once will be a valuable auxiliary to the cheap and speedy construction of the latter.

The state legislature, however, (under the advice of the "State Board of Internal Improvements," composed of citizens from each section of the state,) will, it is expected, this fall, when its biennial session is held, devise some additional measures for carrying out the most judicious plans of internal improvement, to those heretofore adopted. The schemes, wiles and intrigues of speculators and jobbers, pecuniary and political, it may be anticipated, will, in Florida, (as sad experience has proved in other states,) have to be encountered, and overcome, and thwarted, by the just and patriotic citizen. Attempts, by means direct and indirect, to appropriate the lands given to the state for purposes of "internal improvement," the "swamp lands," and every other available resource, to objects merely local, sectional and selfish, will, it may be conjectured, be made; but the sleepless vigilance of the guardians of the public and general weal, will be faithfully exerted to prevent any combinations for such purposes being successful. That cliques having their own interests exclusively in view, have so often elsewhere been able to consummate their designs, will admonish the executive and legislature to watchfulness and caution. I place the firmest reliance on the intelligence, patriotism, and prudence of those departments of the government of my state, in this regard.

The cost of the Great Central Florida Rail-road, it has been estimated, will not probably fall short of four millions of dollars. The proceeds of the sales of town lots at the extreme termini, and at several points on the route where the trade of the surrounding country will be concentrated, will go far in aid of the work. But unless the federal government does, as it should do, grant to the state alternate sections on both sides of the road, on its entire line, and for several miles laterally, as the state has not at present adequate means for its construction, it will probably be deferred. Few foreign capitalists are disposed to embark in such an undertaking as a permanent investment of their means, especially when the proposed work is in a country distant from them, and the progress and conduct of which work they cannot personally attend to; and the assistance of those who may subscribe for stock, as a matter of present speculation by its sale, is generally of doubtful value. I append hereto a statement obtained from the general land office, marked (C), exhibiting the number of acres of public lands in Florida, "surveyed" and "unsurveyed," on the 30th of June, 1851; also the quantity "offered for sale" and the quantity "sold," up to the same day, and other authentic and valuable information as to the federal domain in the state. By a reference to the last annual report of the general land office, it will be seen that Ohio, with an area of 12,354,560 acres less than Florida, has received grants in aid of "internal improvements" for 681,135 acres more than Florida; Indiana, with an area of 16,293,960 acres less, has received 1,109,861 acres more; Iowa, with an area of 5,346,560 acres less, has received 326,078 acres more than Florida, and claims (and justly) 900,000 in addition as having been granted—making 1,225,078 acres more than Florida; Wisconsin, with an area of 3,420,160 less, has received 358,400 acres more than Florida; Illinois, with an area of 2,472,320 less, has received 2,246,490 acres, (the Central Rail-road grant,) more than Florida; and a similar disproportion will be seen to exist with respect to other states. And with respect to donations for schools, &c., a like disproportion exists between the allowances to her and to most of the other states; and by some process, whilst Louisiana is reported as having 8,877,998 acres of swamp lands; Michigan and Arkansas each upwards of 4,500,000 acres; Mississippi 2,239,987 acres; Illinois 1,883,412; Missouri 1,517,287; Wisconsin 1,259,269; Florida is set down as having 562,170 acres! but this, it is understood to be, is because all those lands in the regions yet unsurveyed are not yet officially reported, nor have the state designations progressed as far as the other states mentioned. The swamp lands in Florida will probably exceed those in any other state. Most of the lands heretofore offered, and yet remaining unsold, (and sixteen-seventeenths of

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the lands offered are yet unsold,) will remain unsold for many years to come, unless some of the public improvements suggested should enhance their value. At least eleven-twelfths of all the land in the state are yet owned by the United States. A very large portion of them, even if the principal improvements suggested should be made, would not probably for some time afterwards be sold at the present minimum price of the public lands. The fact that of 17,043,111 acres surveyed and offered for sale prior to June, 1851, but 1,000,407 acres have been sold, (and many of them have been offered for sale for twenty-seven, twenty-five, twenty, fifteen, or ten years,) proves that in the present state of things they are utterly worthless to the United States. On the proposed routes of the great Central Rail-road there are, in different sections of the state, vast tracts of these lands, at present of no value to the general government, to the state, or to individuals. Rich and exhaustless beds of marl are to be found in several sections of the state. Those at Alum Bluff, on the Apalachicola river, but a short distance from the place where the great Central Road will probably cross, are of great value. That road alone will, by the cheap transportation of the marl, afford facilities for fertilizing the lands contiguous to it in every section of the state, but especially in Middle and West Florida; and at the same time the lumber, tar, turpentine, rosin, and resinous oils that may be obtained from most of such lands, prior to their being thus prepared for and put in cultivation, could be readily conveyed to market by the same means.

Florida is the fifth state in size in the confederacy. Her area is 59,268 square miles, or 37,931,520 acres. She possesses an advantage had by no other state of the Union. She alone, of all the present United States, can cultivate and raise advantageously, and for the supply of the other states on this side of the continent, tropical fruits and other highly valuable tropical products! She will have no rival in this respect among her sister states till further "extension" and additional "annexation" is effected. You are referred on this subject to the public documents and other authentic books specified in the note, (D,) hereto annexed. In a few years, whether in time of war or in time of peace, not only the Atlantic cities, but the entire valley of the Mississippi, can be supplied by her with most tropical productions, with greater facility and cheaper than they can be procured from Cuba, or from any other of the West India islands. A tithe of the sum necessary to purchase Cuba, if Spain should be willing to dispose of it, and a fiftieth part of the amount of expenditure necessary to conquer and annex that island by arms, or to obtain it in any other mode, honorable or dishonorable, if expended by the federal government (even as above indicated, by liberal grants of land), in aid of works of internal improvement in Florida, would render that state more valuable than Cuba ever can be, to this confederacy. Such a policy might also subdue some of the covetings and cravings many seem to have for the "Queen of the Antilles," (as they designate that island,) and obviate in some degree the necessity which they insist now exists, of its being forthwith wrested from Spain and possessed by the United States. War and bloodshed would also be thereby averted.

The most judicious policy that can be adopted by the federal government with reference to Florida, in my judgment is, to transfer without delay to that state every acre of public lands within its borders, stipulating that the proceeds thereof hereafter realized by the state, shall be exclusively devoted to internal and harbor improvements within the state; the United States reserving only the necessary sites for light-houses, fortifications, and other structures, under the control of the federal government. At any rate the transfer of all lands, that, at this time, or hereafter, have been offered for sale at $1.25 per acre, for ten years, and that remain unsold, should be made, and a similar rule could be wisely applied to all the states wherein public lands lie.

No one, it is presumed, will deny that the coast frontier of every part of the United States is peculiarly a subject of legitimate concernment for the federal government, or, that to a certain extent the states have yielded the partial control thereof to the United States; and that, in some respects, it may be regarded as the common property of the people of all the states of this confederacy. The lines of jurisdiction between the states and the federal government, and

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between the respective state governments, as to such coast frontier, are distinctly marked by the federal constitution. The federal government has not been invested by the states with any right of property to the coasts. By Art. 4, § 2, clause 1, of the federal compact, it is stipulated that "the citizens of each state shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several states;" and it has been held that the free right of navigation, of commerce and of piscary, and in fine of every usufructuary privilege of the coast waters, (not essentially and exclusively local,) and that are common rights, as distinguished from exclusive rights of property, in a state, or in individuals, pertain equally to the citizens of the United States of every state of the confederacy, without distinction in favor of the citizens of that state of which such coast is the frontier. Such police regulations as sound policy may render necessary, can be rightfully established and enforced by that state, and it may enact laws for the protection and conservation of such common rights, and to regulate their use so as to prevent their abuse; but such laws must apply equally to its own citizens as to the citizens of the other states. The general rights of navigation and of commerce, by all, and that of piscary in waters not exclusively local, cannot be withheld for the exclusive benefit of its own citizens. But no other state may rightfully legislate as to such privileges on the coasts of a sister state, nor does the federal government possess any constitutional power to regulate by law the right of piscary on the coasts of a state, nor to cede by treaty or otherwise the privilege of using such fisheries to a foreign power or its subjects, any more than it can regulate by law any other common right in a state, or cede away a part of the territory of a state to a foreign power. To defend and protect such coast frontier in which the citizens of the United States in all the states have such common interest, as well as because it is a part of one of the states; to "repel invasions," (see Art. 1, § 8, cl. 15, Const. U. S.) is the bounden duty of the federal government. It is in the clause just cited invested with full power, and the national compact twice enjoins the fulfilment of such duty, (see clause last cited, and Art. 4, § 4,) and the same instrument contains an express constitutional guaranty that "it shall protect each of them [the states] against invasion," &c. The federal government builds fortifications, and navy yards, and ships, and armories, and arsenals, and military, and navy, and marine hospitals, and custom-houses, and it establishes lines of mail steamers to Great Britain and Europe, and to the Pacific; it has erected and maintains an observatory and a military and naval academy; has a "coast survey" establishment; sends ships of war on exploring expeditions; and Congress within the last fifteen years has spent millions of dollars for the making and publication of all kinds of books on all kinds of subjects. Some of the improvements on the coasts, and leading to the coasts of Florida above noticed, are as directly and immediately important and essential for the "defence" and "protection" of that section "against invasion" as forts, ships, &c., can be elsewhere. This, it is true, is owing in some degree to the peculiar geographical position, insular formation, and character of that section. Under such circumstances, to deny the legitimate constitutional power of the federal government to "provide for the common defence" by aiding and promoting such necessary improvements in Florida, is to deny to it the power to employ the proper and necessary means of fulfilling such constitutional duty. Whilst the obligation of the general government to "defend" and "protect" a state "against invasion" in time of war, is conceded, to object that the federal constitution does not allow prudent and proper and necessary preparation by it in time of peace for the fulfilment of such duty economically, advantageously and successfully, is extending "the salutary rule of strict construction" into absurdity. The attenuated logic by which objections are made to the means of defence and protection as unconstitutional, because forsooth the resort to such means may also and otherwise promote other interests of the state or of the confederacy, has little weight with me. But when the aid desired can be yielded in the exercise of the undoubted constitutional authority of Congress to dispose of the public lands for the common benefit, all scruples with respect to grants of such lands in aid of those improvements in the states where the lands lie, should be extinguished. The impolicy and injustice of the federal

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government retaining all the lands unsaleable at the present minimum price fixed by it, for a series of years after they have been offered for sale, without yielding any taxes for them to the states wherein they lie—not contributing anything in any mode for the making and repair of ordinary high ways and bridges through them, is severely felt by every resident (whether rich or poor) of a country in which there is a large quantity of unsold public lands. The personal labor the settler is compelled to yield in this way to enhance the value of the property of the United States, in addition to his other taxes, is an onerous burthen. Difficulties will probably ensue from the granting to one sovereign state the control and ownership of lands within another sovereign state, even if the lands are made liable to just taxation; and still greater difficulties will arise as to the adoption of any just rate of distribution amongst the states. Some proposed rules of distribution are absurd as well as iniquitous. By the rule of population, New-York would at this time receive 33 acres to every one received by Florida, and yet Florida has 1200 miles of sea coast to defend, whilst New-York has less than 150 on her Atlantic frontier. Florida has 7,671,520 acres more in area than New-York. She is larger than New-York and Massachusetts, or New-York and Maryland together; she is larger than New-York, New-Jersey and Connecticut all together; and leaving out Maine, more than twice as large as all the other five New-England states together. Florida has no mountains, and properly improved, she will have within her limits less waste lands not susceptible of cultivation than either New-Hampshire, or Massachusetts, or Maryland, or New-Jersey, though neither of those states is one-seventh of her size; and she would be capable in a few years, if improved as suggested, of sustaining comfortably a larger population than New-York of itself or all the New-England states united. Population is a shifting rule, and not based on any just principle when adopted with reference to grants to the states. If the grant is intended to be given to the citizens of each state disposed to emigrate to and settle on such lands, the federal government had better make the grant directly to the occupant. The only true and just rule as to grants in aid of works for coast defence, or any other national objects, is the necessity or importance of such work, and the advantage that will result to the country therefrom. The policy of promoting the settlement of an exposed frontier state by free grants of lands to occupants, and to the state in aid of internal improvements, is, it is conceived, quite as obvious and fully as strong as any policy of defence, as to a future war with a naval power, that can be adopted. The expense incurred in one such war of three years, necessary to defend the 1200 miles of sea coast in Florida, would probably exceed fourfold all that is necessary for the government to yield in aid of internal improvements in that state! Our entire national coast should be defended. "No foe's hostile foot should leave its print on our shore." The dishonor of a successful invasion by an enemy will be as great if the assault be made at Cape Sable or Apalachicola as if made at Philadelphia or Washington. Besides, if such improvements are made, the means of defence thereby permanently established in Florida, will enable the federal government to provide more readily and early for other exposed points, and to furnish troops which could not be withheld or abstracted from Florida in her present condition, during such war, without gross dereliction of federal duty.

That the scientific and able engineers educated for and in the federal service, ought to be, (when the federal government has so little appropriate employ for them as at present, and generally in times of peace,) assigned to duty in the states in surveys for public improvements, is an opinion becoming quite general, and if such course is adopted, it will probably prevent the abolition or reduction of such corps. The services of such officers would be most valuable to Florida in her surveys for the various works I have mentioned above.

The population of Florida by the last census was but 47,167 white persons, 928 free colored and 39,309 colored slaves—in all 87,401. If Congress will encourage and foster the growth and prosperity of the state, by aiding and promoting the works indicated, in the manner suggested, emigration thither from Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, Kentucky, Tennessee, Missouri and other states, will speedily commence, and by

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the year 1860, her population will be quadrupled, her resources and wealth augmented in still greater ratio; and the most exposed and defenceless section of the Union rendered impregnable. By even yielding to the state merely the lands made valuable by the works she may construct, and with the means thereby afforded for the employment of labor in the construction of such works, she will be enabled to do much. Grant her all the vacant land, and, (excepting the "ship canal,") she may effect all that her own interests, or those of her sister states demand, now or hereafter.

A reference to the map of Florida now sent to you, made at the Bureau of Topographical Engineers in 1846, and to a chart of the light-houses of the United States also inclosed, will show you that with upwards of 1,200 miles of dangerous sea-board, there are fewer light-houses in the state than there are appurtenant to the cities either of New-York or Boston. Property of upwards of two hundred millions of dollars in value, it is estimated, annually passes along a large portion of the Florida coasts, which are in many places as much exposed and dangerous as the coast of any section of the Union.

In the document referred to in note (E), annexed hereto, you will find stated the value of the property annually wrecked on the keys and reefs and coasts of South Florida, and which is carried into Key West for adjudication of the salvage, for each of the ten years last past. A large amount wrecked elsewhere, on the upper coast, and that which is totally lost, is not estimated; nor is the great loss of human life adverted to. The average value of all the property annually wrecked and lost on all the Florida coasts and reefs cannot be less than a million of dollars!

You are referred to the statements procured from the treasury department herewith sent to you, and to the documents specified in note (F), for the tonnage and foreign exports and imports and other statistics of the state.

You will find in some of the documents I send you, authentic information as to the fisheries on the coast of Florida. It is predicted, that before many years, these fisheries will become a source of profitable employment to thousands of seafaring men, who will be induced thereby to become residents of the islands and coasts contiguous to them; and they will be looked to, particularly by the inhabitants of the great western valley for the supply of that article of subsistence; and other sections of the Union, and foreign countries may likewise be furnished from them. They pertain exclusively to the state, the constitution whereof asserts its right; and they are regarded as destined to be of as much importance and value, as the fisheries on the coast of the British Colonies at the north-east end of this continent.

In addition to the documents above mentioned, I inclose you a letter (G) respecting the State of Florida, from that intelligent officer J. C. G. Kennedy, Esq. of the "Census Bureau;" and also a statement (H), compiled from the laws of all the appropriations of money or lands made by Congress since the acquisition of the Floridas, in any wise, in aid of public improvements therein.

Though hundreds of invalids and valetudinarians annually resort to Florida from the north and west during the winter months, the state has been slandered as being insalubrious. The letter of Mr. Kennedy proves that on the score of health she stands ahead of any other southern state, and is exceeded by but two states of the Union. Some transient visitors to Florida, ignorant of the ordinances of Providence for the preservation of health in tropical regions, and ignorant of the genial effect of the climate upon the soil; and comparing the soil of Florida with the rich bottom lands of the western and middle states, denounce the lands of Florida as "barren sands," as "worthless," &c. Mr. Kennedy's testimony, founded on the unerring test of official statistics of facts, disproves all these notions, and establishes the fact that in proportion to the improved lands, and in proportion also to her population, her agricultural products exceed in value those of any other state of the Union; and so also in proportion to her slave population, they exceed in value those of any other of the slave states.

APPENDIX.—C.

Statement compiled from Report of Commissioner of General Land Office as to public lands in Florida, June 30, 1851, and other documents in the General Land Office:

Area in square miles	59,268
Area in acres	37,931,520
Surveyed	22,314,689

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Unsurveyed	15,616,831
Offered for sale	17,043,111
Sold	1,000,407
Surveyed and not offered	5,271,578
Advertised in fall of 1851	1,780,322
Surveyed and not sold	21,314,282
Donations and grants for schools (16th sections) and for University	954,583
Kentucky Deaf and Dumb Asylum	20,924
Internal improvements, grant on admission	500,000
Grants to individuals ("armed occupants") under acts of 1842 and 1848, patented up to June 30, 1851	52,114
Public buildings, seat of government	6,240
Grants for military services, &c., (general military land warrants located in Florida)	31,240
Reserved for "live oak" for Navy	163,868
[This does not include sites for forts, light-houses, &c., or town lots of U. S. in Pensacola and St. Augustine, nor the Keys and Islands on the coasts, all of which are reserved for the present, the departments having decided that an act of Congress is necessary to release a reservation by the President for any purpose.]	
Reservation for town of St. Mark's	305
Confirmed private claims (Spanish grants, &c.)	1,939,789
Swamp lands returned to June 30, 1851, not including those in the regions yet unsurveyed, and others not designated, supposed to amount to several millions of acres	562,170
Reserved temporarily for Indians, under Gen. Worth's arrangement, including "neutral ground" prescribed by War Department, estimated at	3,600,000

Land sold in year ending June 30, 1851, 27,873 acres; receipts same time, $34,842. The expenses in Florida of the United States as to the public lands for some years exceed the receipts.

(G.)

CENSUS OFFICE, WASHINGTON CITY,
August 23d, 1852.

DEAR SIR:—In compliance with your request, I enclose you sundry printed statements compiled in this office in January last, from the official returns, relating to the population, products, &c., of Florida, and also of other states, so far as is necessary to verify the comparisons made below. The statements are generally correct, but typographical and other errors, which exist to an inconsiderable extent, will be rectified in the official publication soon to be made. These corrections will not change materially any of the results given.

It seems:

That the number of deaths in Florida in the year ending June 1st, 1850, was 933, the population being 87,400. This is but 1 in 93 (and a fraction) in that year, and is less in proportion than in any other state of the Union, except Vermont, Iowa, and Wisconsin.

The territories of Oregon and Minnesota, it appears, had fewer deaths in 1850, in proportion to their population, than any state. This may, in some degree, be accounted for by the fact that emigration thither is mostly of male adults in the vigor and prime of life, and there are in these countries comparatively fewer aged and infirm persons and fewer children than in the old settled states.

The entire area of Florida, in acres, is 37,931,520, and of this there were in 1850 only 349,049 acres of improved land. The official average valuation of these improved lands, made by the returning officers, is $18 per acre, being much less than the average valuation of improved lands in any other state or territory.

Florida has less improved lands than any state except Rhode Island and California.

Florida has acres of improved land	349,049
Unimproved, attached to above	1,236,240
Cash value of improved lands	$6,323,109
Value of farming implements and machinery	$658,795
Horses	10,848
Mules, &c	5,002
Milch cows	72,876
Working oxen	5,794
Other cattle	182,415
Sheep	23,311
Swine	209,453
Value of live stock	$2,880,058
Wheat, bushels of	1,027
Rye, bushels of	1,152
Indian corn, bushels of	1,996,809
Oats, bushels of	66,586
Rice, pounds of	1,075,090
Tobacco, pounds of	998,614
Ginned cotton, bales of 400 lbs. each	45,131
Wool, pounds of	23,247
Peas and beans, bushels of	135,359
Irish potatoes, bushels of	7,828
Sweet potatoes, bushels of	757,226
Buckwheat, bushels of	55
Value of orchard products, in dollars	1,280
Wine, gallons of	10
Value of produce of market gardens	$8,721
Butter, pounds of	371,498
Cheese, pounds of	18,015
Hay, tons of	2,510
Other grass seeds, bushels of	2
Hops, pounds of	14
Flax, pounds of	50
Silk cocoons, pounds of	6
Cane sugar, hogsheads of 1000 pounds	2,752
Molasses, gallons of	352,893
Beeswax and honey, pounds of	18,971
Value of home-made manufactures	$75,582
Value of animals slaughtered	$514,685

It seems that in proportion to the quantity of improved lands, Florida produces more cotton than any other state. So also in proportion to the slave population she produces more cotton than any other slave state. So also in proportion to her entire population she produces more cotton than any other state of the Union.

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She produces more sugar (from cane), in proportion to the lands in cultivation, in proportion to her slave population, and also in proportion to her entire population, than any other state of the Union, except Louisiana and Texas.

Florida raises a greater quantity of tobacco than any of the other states except Connecticut, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, Kentucky, Ohio, Indiana, and Missouri; and in proportion to the lands in cultivation, and to the population, greater than several of those states. She raises a greater number of bushels of sweet potatoes than any state of the Union, in proportion to the land in cultivation, and slave population, and aggregate population.

The number of cattle in Florida compares with that of any state in the same way.

No account of oranges, figs, olives, plantains, bananas, yams, or other tropical fruits, or of the coompty or arrow root, or sisal hemp, or other tropical productions, can be given at this time from this office.

There is great difficulty in estimating the value of the different products of the different states, and of the same products in different states; but from a general and hasty estimate from the best data I can refer to, and, from comparison, I am satisfied the value of the agricultural products of Florida (of course in the state), in proportion to the area of improved lands, and to the population, slave or free, and both, will compare favorably with the value of the products of any state of the Union. When, therefore, the lower value of the land and of the agricultural implements used is estimated, and also the superior health of the state is considered, your anticipations of the comparison being advantageous to your state will be realized.

Florida is behind many of the states in her corn crop, and she raises but a small quantity of wheat, rye, or oats; and it appears the value of all investments in the State of Florida in cotton manufactures is $80,000, which is of cotton goods, making 624,000 yards of sheeting annually. It is impossible, at this moment, to furnish the statistics of the lumber business in Florida, which amounts to a large sum annually.

I have the honor to be, sir, with great respect, your obedient servant,

JOS. C. G. KENNEDY, *Supd't.*

Hon. E. C. CABELL.

(F.)

TREASURY DEPARTMEMT,
Register's Office, August 25, 1852.

DEAR SIR:—I have caused a clerk to compile the memoranda desired by you of the statistics of commerce and navigation in Florida in 1850-1, which is as follows:—

1850, imports from foreign ports.....	$95,109
1851, " " " "	94,997
1850, exports to foreign ports.....	2,607,968
1851, " " " "	3,939,910

Tonnage in 1850, 9,365 tons; in 1851, 11,272 tons.

Of the exports in 1850, $2,546,471 was from Apalachicola, and in 1851 there was $3,858,983 from the same port. In 1851, the foreign exports from St. Mark's were $61,755. Much more than half of the tonnage of the entire state is from Key West.

Of the value of shipments of foreign or domestic merchandise, or products from and to Florida ports coastwise to and from other ports of the United States, no returns are made to the Treasury. It is presumed that the value of the shipments of cotton, tobacco, rice, sugar, lumber, tar, turpentine, and other products of Florida so shipped coastwise, vastly exceeds the value of the foreign importations.

The exports, foreign and coastwise, from Florida ports, greatly exceed the products of the state. This you will perceive by comparison of the census office returns, and estimating them with the statistics you can procure from the chamber of commerce of each port, or merchants, of the coastwise exports, adding the latter to the foreign exports above given. This is accounted for by the fact that a large amount of the products of the States of Alabama and Georgia is sent to the Florida gulf ports for shipment.

I have the honor to be, your obedient servant,

N. SARGEANT.

Extracts from the last Message of Governor Brown, of Florida.

"It is a melancholy reflection that while the spirit of improvement is pervading every other state—opening new sources of wealth and comfort, and stimulating human industry in all its varied departments — Florida alone, like the slothful servant who buried his talent, seems well nigh content with inaction and repose on this vital subject. We do

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not transcend the limits of truth when we claim for her natural advantages, resources, and capabilities for improvement, unsurpassed by those of any other state of the Union. She is the fifth in territorial area—the third in health—with some 1,200 miles Atlantic and gulf sea-board—a fruitful soil—a genial climate, extending within the tropic of Cancer, and a range of agricultural products of unsurpassed variety and value. She has noble rivers — spacious harbors—inexhaustible supplies of timber. Around her floats, in endless succession, a large portion of the commercial marine of the civilized world, and she lies in the direct line of travel and transportation between the great marts of the northeast and southwest—the Atlantic, the Gulf, and the Pacific coasts.

"With all these advantages, her progress, if it deserves the name, has no parallel within the limits of the Union in feebleness and insignificance. Colonized 300 years ago, she is still weak in numbers—with very little greater comparative public or private wealth than less favored sections, and the broad bosom of millions of her acres, susceptible of profitable tillage, is yet undisturbed by the hand of agricultural labor.

"The last General Assembly passed 'An Act to organize and establish a board of agriculture for the state of Florida,' which provides that it shall 'be composed of three persons resident at Tallahassee, and one corresponding member from each county in the state to be appointed by the governor;' and declares, 'that it shall be the duty of such corresponding members to collect and report to the head of the bureau at Tallahassee, by mail or otherwise, all information relating to the soil, production, and climate,' &c.; and, further, 'that it shall be the duty of the chiefs of this department to transcribe and arrange all such information in a book to be kept by them for that purpose, and in some convenient form—at all business hours to keep the same open for public inspection and benefit, and also to distribute all seeds or plants they may receive for that purpose.' All these provisions, it is respectfully submitted, are either impracticable or inexpedient. The governor could hardly be expected to possess such intimate knowledge of all the counties in the state as to enable him to make judicious appointments; and as no salaries are provided, it is not presumable that persons could be found to perform the duties prescribed without compensation; consequently, no appointments have been made; but an agricultural society has been organized in the county of Leon, with the view of constituting a central society for the state, with auxiliary societies in the different counties, which would lead to the accomplishment of the objects contemplated by the act, with the assistance of a scientific state geologist, to furnish the 'information relating to the soil, productions, and climate,' of the various portions of the state. The appointment of such an officer would probably be attended with the most beneficial effects in the development of the agricultural resources of Florida."

FINANCES OF FLORIDA, 1851-52.

The receipts at the Treasury during the fiscal year ending 31st October, 1851, amount to, viz	$84,147 25
From ordinary sources:	
License tax	$5,164 54
Auction "	818 51
Fines	1,900 09
Revenue of 1846	255 43
" of 1847	135 77
" of 1848	1,167 40
" of 1849	727 69
" of 1850	40,857 44
" of 1851	6,114 23
	$57,141 10
To which add amount received in redemption of land	274 03
Amount rec'd in loan from School Fund	25,000 00
" " in reimbursement of a temporary advance from the Contingent Fund to Quarter Master General, with interest	1,727 12
Amount received for room rent	5 00
	$84,147 25
The WARRANTS issued during the same period amount to	$67,187 73
On account of Fifth General Assembly	$22,901 07
Salaries	18,804 11
Criminal prosecutions	11,877 93
Contingent expenses	5,772 90
Jurors and witnesses	1,900 63
Expenses of Supreme Court	1,910 85
Residence for Governor	500 00
Rent of Armory	250 00
State Boundary Line	1,000 00
Land bought in for the state	414 68
Fines refunded	159 18
Taxes "	486 12
Orphan Fund	478 42
Interest due School Fund	731 84
	$67,187 73
The RECEIPTS for the year ending 31st October, 1852, amount to	$60,619 63
From auction tax	$1,292 65
" fines	2,300 27
" license tax	4,391 24

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For Revenue of 1847	14 21
" of 1848	150 00
" of 1849	306 80
" of 1850	1,120 19
" of 1851	40,474 08
" of 1852	5,525 44
For Contingent Fund	44 75
For loan from Internal Improvement Fund	5,000 00
	$60,619 63

The WARRANTS issued same year, 1852, amount to	$55,234 49

On account of salaries	$20,000 00
" criminal prosecutions	9,470 25
" contingent expenses	4,864 58
" jurors and witnesses	9,658 77
" expenses Supreme Court	1,842 42
" residence for Governor	500 00
" rent of Armory	250 00
" land bought for the state	218 40
" interest due School Fund	1,873 98
" Indian hostilities	4,301 09
" vaults, &c., in capitol	2,000 00
" post mortem examinat'ns	255 00
	$55,234 49

SWAMP LANDS OF FLORIDA.

"GENERAL LAND OFFICE."

September 18th, 1852.

"SIR,—In accordance with your request, I have the honor to state that the total area of swamp and overflowed lands selected and reported to this office by the surveyor-general of Florida, as enuring to that state under the Act of 28th September, 1850, is as follows:—

	Acres.
In the Tallahassee District	195,207 67-100
" Newnansville District	146,097 31-100
" St. Augustine District	173,178 25-100
Total	514,483 23-100

The true area may vary slightly from the above quantity, as the footing up was somewhat hastily done—but it is believed that the above statement is very nearly correct.—With great respect, your obedient servant,

"JOHN WILSON,
"*Acting Commissioner.*"

Extract from the Tropical Farmer.

East Florida is that part of the Peninsula from the Suwanee river, east and south. This region is naturally divided into the Gulf and Atlantic slopes, and the table lands—a slightly elevated plain between the two slopes. The table lands rise gradually from the Suwanee river south, to the head waters of the Withlacooche; averaging in width about twenty miles, with but few streams of running water, and an occasional fresh water lake—varying in size from that of a mere pond, to one of twenty to thirty miles circuit. These lakes are few, and stock water is rather scarce in this region.

The gulf slope is intersected by numerous short rivers, formed by single springs bursting up all along the coast from five to fifteen, or twenty miles from the gulf. The Atlantic slope is divided by the St. John's river, a magnificent stream, averaging more than two miles in width, rising in the Okachobee lake at the head of the Everglades, and running north at the distance of some eighteen or twenty miles from the Atlantic coast—widening in many places into extensive lakes; and finally turning east, not far from the northern boundary of the state, empties into the Atlantic.

The table land is the most desirable portion of the country on many accounts—especially the counties of Alachua, Marion and Hernando, (formerly Benton.) The rich land is better diffused, allowing better chance for good neighborhoods, likely to prove healthy—free from insects—soil quite as rich, and climate pretty much the same as the slopes. On the Atlantic side there is but little good lands, except near New Smyrna, and on the Indian river inlet. The St. John's affords but little first-rate land, though where there is a body of good land on this river, it is destined to be very valuable for sugar and tropical fruits.

On the gulf side there is much good land, but in large and dense hommocks, all along the coast; only divided by short rivers. These lands will become immensely valuable for sugar; but will never be settled by a large white population. They will be owned by heavy planters, who will either reside upon the Keys, or in the interior.

The soil is of every variety, from the poorest pine barrens to the richest alluvions. The hommocks of the table land are of various sizes, from half an acre to forty thousand acres.

The most wonderful appearance of these hommocks is, their elevation above the pine and hickory lands. The whole region is high and rolling, but in coming out of a hommock, which appears whilst you are in it, like a vast river bottom, you are astonished to find yourself going down hill into the pine barren.

The soil is a mixture of lime, sand, alumina and vegetable matter. In some places the sand largely predominates, in others the clay; both in the

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pine barrens and the hommocks. In the hommocks, the soil, which is of every color, has vast quantities both of lime and vegetable matter; rendering them vastly productive and almost inexhaustible. A singular feature in the country generally is, that the higher portions are almost invariably the richer.

This part of Florida is evidently an upheave — caused by a subterraneous fire. In traveling over the high lands you see at every step traces of workings of the great deep. The rocks sticking up, and lying strewed over portions both of the pine barrens and the hommocks, are evidently submarine—such as may be found at the bottom of the gulf, all covered with sea periwinkle, oyster and clam shells. These shells often being incorporated in the formation; in fact, the beholder is no doubt as sensibly struck with the evidences of the country's having been submerged as could have been the children of Israel, when, walking through the Red Sea, they saw the waters heaped up on either side, and trod under foot the floundering fish.

There is a white stratum of shell-lime under the surface of the whole Peninsula at various depths. In all this there are shells only partially decomposed.— The hommocks and high portions of the open country were no doubt basins, while the sea was over it, into which were poured for centuries, the washing of a thousand streams from ten thousand hills, rich! rich! rich! And they being a thinner portion of the layer above the raging fire, were thrown higher in the eruption.

The climate in the summer is more pleasant than higher latitudes or than in any country in the same latitude not similarly situated in contiguity to the ocean, in the winter milder than any other portion of the United States. We but seldom have frosts that kill vegetation before the last of November, and in the southern portion of the Peninsula, seldom any at all. This portion of the Peninsula is destined some day to become the resort of the invalids of half our continent. The diseases of the country are few, simple, and easy of treatment. The debilitating effect of long summers is remedied with us by the cool nights which we have all the summer. The cholera, that death-plague of other countries, and the most of our states, is unknown among us, and according to the last census returns, the deaths in East Florida is only a quarter of one per cent., less than any other portion of the United States. If that fraction of a per cent. could be abolished, the whole world "and the rest of mankind" would soon be here. As it is, we expect many of them here this fall and winter.

The productions are various and valuable, comprising sugar-cane, Cuba tobacco, cotton, long and short, corn, arrow-root, sisal hemp, and tropical fruits, all of them growing luxuriantly, as well as you could expect anything of the vegetable kind to grow in a rich soil, and in a warm and damp climate. Every thing of the vine species flourishes—melons of 60 to 70 lbs. are not uncommon.

In traveling through the country, along the road, the stranger forms an unfavorable opinion of the land; the roads passing generally over the poorest portions. But let him not be disheartened, but look around and he will soon be pleased well enough to move to the Land of Flowers. And though he may object because of the small proportion of hommock, and in fact of the large proportion of poor land; he will soon be reconciled upon reflection; if the entire peninsula were rich hommock, though all were high land, it would most likely become a mere grave-yard. As it is, it is the healthiest country in the world.

THE SALT OF FLORIDA.—In 1829, the easterly half of the island of Key West, consisting of a series of salt-water ponds, was leased out by the proprietors to the Lafayette Salt Company, who put up works on it, principally consisting of covered pans, after the plan adopted at Cape Cod and New-Bedford, from which the company must have taken from 15,000 to 20,000 bushels of salt annually, until 1846, when the hurricane almost entirely destroyed the improvement. The wreck of the materials was sold to Chas. Howe, Esq., who bought the landed property and rebuilt the pans and vats. He also constructed ground pans, after the manner of those in the Bahamas, from all of which he took, in 1848 and 1849, an average of over 38,000 bushels. The years 1849 and 1850 were not quite so successful, from the wetness of the season; yet there was still made in those seasons an average of 20,000 bushels.

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The works were considerably increased in extent last year; but from the unusual fall of rain, no more than 20,000 bushels were raked. This year 500 acres were exposed to evaporation, and it is believed that near 60,000 bushels have been made.

SISAL HEMP OF FLORIDA. — Judge Heermans, the intelligent representative from St. Lucie county, exhibited to us several specimens of Sisal hemp grown by him on India river, from plants introduced into Florida by the late Dr. Perrine, of Indian Key. We learn that the plant from which these samples are manufactured, grows thriftily on the poorest soil, and for that reason is well adapted to many portions of this state. Time and population would seem to be all that are needed to make this an important article of commerce.

Judge Heermans gives a most tempting description of the Indian river country — a region of the state too little known of our people by reason of the presence of the Indians. The climate is delicious—the thermometer never going higher than 96, and seldom reaching that point. Frost is almost a stranger to the 'oldest inhabitant,' and as a consequence the tropical fruits flourish in perpetual freshness. The pine-apple, the orange, lemon, banana, lime, &c., grow to perfection, yielding a bountiful crop. This beautiful country is kept from being inhabited, except by a few fearless pioneers, by Bowlegs and his marauding band, who are in undisturbed possession of it—'lords of all they survey.' Their presence there is a monument of reproach to our government.

Had they been removed, according to treaty stipulations, doubtless South Florida to day would have boasted of thousands of inhabitants, busily engaged in developing the rich resources of this, the garden spot of America, and in blessing the rest of the world with our productions and commerce. We trust, however, that the day is not far distant when we shall be able to say to the multitudes abroad who are waiting to make South Florida their home, that the Indians are gone, and the entire country open to settlement without fear of further interruption.

We hope Judge Heermans will favor our readers with the results of his experience in cultivating the hemp and tropical fruits, samples of which, we understand, were exhibited by him.—*Tallahassee Floridian.*

THE PROSPECTS OF FLORIDA.—Florida, by the recent census, will exhibit, as we are informed, an increase of nearly 100 per cent. since the taking of the last census. This is a gratifying result, considering the numerous obstacles and discouragements which have existed. Since the first of June last, we learn there has been a greater immigration into the country than for any two years previously, and we look forward with confidence to the fact that ten years hence our state will show an increase unparalleled even in the remarkable increase of our sister southern states. Florida possesses as yet but a sprinkling of population compared to her vast extent; the success which has hitherto attended agricultural pursuits in this state has given an impulse to cotton growers to seek its virgin and productive soil; but, with the exception of the production of cotton, the resources of the country have been comparatively unopened. Some attention has been paid to sugar planting, and with great success, but the great expense and large capital required to be invested in sugar planting, have prevented hitherto the establishment of any great number of large sugar estates, although they are daily increasing, and nearly every family manufactured some quantity besides that required for their own use. Sugar planting, we believe, however, is destined to be the great staple of our state, the climate and quality of the soil giving it peculiar advantages beyond any other portion of the United States.

The extensive pine barrens, much of which is of remarkable fertility, afford the means of an extensive business in the manufacture of timber, a trade now beginning to assume great importance, and also in the production of naval stores, a branch of business scarcely touched as yet. Extensive water courses permeating the whole country, and the peninsular position of the country afford the facilities necessary to the transportation of lumber and naval stores to market.

In the lesser branches of commercial production, we have various species of wood suitable for the manufacture of furniture, many valuable species of

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drugs and dyewoods, moss, hemp, arrow root, and the orange and lemon, a traffic alone of immense importance. It is one of the difficulties of so extensive a catalogue of profitable employment, that with a sparse population they must be neglected for the more direct and familiar crops of corn and cotton, and that there are few who have the ability, the intelligence, or the skill, requisite to the introduction of new branches of employment. Lands are now cheap and abundant, and the largest portion of them are in the hands of the state, and will produce as they are sold a large revenue to the state, and thus relieve the expenses of the state government.

We shall present our readers, so soon as we can obtain them, the full statistical results of the late census.

STATE CENTRAL AGRICULTURAL SOCIETY OF FLORIDA.—The first attempt at an agricultural fair in Florida was made, in Nov. last, at Tallahassee. Mr. Martyn, a gentleman connected with the business of this Review, was present, and speaks of it in the language of highest encomium and encouragement. The Sentinel says, "Considering all the circumstances, everybody is astonished at the measure of success which has attended it. It has been pronounced by several intelligent persons, one of the most creditable first trials they have ever seen anywhere. The show was considerable—the attendance fair, and, but for the inclement weather, would have been very large. As an experiment, it has surpassed all expectation, both as to the articles exhibited and the interest awakened on the subject, and we doubt not it will be attended with the best results."

We append the constitution of the State Agricultural Society of Florida:

1. This association shall be called "The State Central Agricultural Society of Florida."

2. Membership shall be constituted by the payment to the treasurer of the society of one dollar annually.

3. Its objects shall be the encouragement and promotion of Agriculture, Horticulture, Manufactures, and the Mechanic Arts.

4. All county agricultural societies organized in this state, and the adjunct counties of Georgia and Alabama, may become auxiliaries to this state central society, and their officers *ex-officio* members thereof, with the privilege of sending to the annual meetings of this society as many delegates as they may choose.

5. There shall be elected at the time of organizing the society and annually thereafter, a president, one vice-president, a corresponding secretary, a recording secretary and treasurer, and an executive committee of nine members, which number shall be increased, if a majority shall deem it necessary, and who, with the president, vice-president, and secretaries as *ex-officio* members of the committee, shall elect a chairman, in whose absence, the president or vice-president of the association may preside.

6. There shall be annually a fair, to be held in or near the city of Tallahassee, at some suitable place to be provided by the executive committee, at which suitable premiums shall be offered for the encouragement and promotion of the objects of this association.

7. The next annual fair of this society shall be held on the fourth Wednesday of November next, and continue four days.

8. It shall be the duty of the executive committee to appoint the time and prepare the place for the annual fair, which shall be in the month of November, and shall continue for four days; and to prepare the premiums to be offered, a notice of which shall be published at least six months previous to the first day of the annual fair; and for this and all other purposes, the chairman of the executive committee shall have authority to draw upon the treasurer of the society for any moneys in his hands; and to aid in offering liberal premiums, the executive committee, or any of its members, may solicit and receive contributions to the funds of the society, and pay them over to the treasurer.

9. It shall be the duty of the executive committee to appoint the necessary committees to judge and award premiums, and to appoint all necessary officers, servants, and assistants, and to make all necessary and suitable arrangements for the convenience of exhibitors for premiums, and for the security and protection of their property; and to make all necessary and needful rules and regulations for conducting the

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fair in proper order, and to be paid out of the treasury of the society for all such proper and necessary expenditures, on the order of the chairman.

10. It shall be the duty of the executive committee to procure some competent person to deliver the annual address, which shall be on one of the days of the fair; and, also, to procure some one or more to deliver a lecture or lectures, on one or more of the evenings of the fair, upon horticulture and botany.

11. All exhibiters for premiums must be members of the society.

The following officers were then elected for the ensuing year:

Gov. THOMAS BROWN, president. Col. JOHN J. MAXWELL, vice-president. Col. EDWARD HOUSTOUN, secretary and treasurer. JOSEPH CLISBY, corresponding secretary.

The following gentlemen were nominated and appointed to constitute, with the board of officers, the executive committee for the ensuing year, to wit:

Gen. R. K. Call, Col. George T. Ward, Doct. G. T. Maxwell, Philip T. Pierce, Esq., Robert H. Hall, Esq., Hon. Wm. B. Wynn, Hon. M. A. Long, Gen. R. W. Williams, James Y. Jones, Esq.

KEY WEST AS A DEPOT FOR CALIFORNIA STEAMERS.—A writer from Florida adduces the following reasons in favor of Key-West over Havana:—

1st. The distance from New-York to Central America is less on a line passing through Key-West than measured via Havana; and from New-York to Tehuantepec the advantage of distance is greatly in favor of Key-West.

2d. A steamer bound to Chagres, via Havana, must twice cross the gulf stream, and in a diagonal line stem its rapid current for full twenty-four hours. If passing through Key-West, the steamer would keep upon the edge of the stream, where the eddy would be in its favor, and the crossing of the gulf avoided.

3d. Smoother seas and calmer weather are found upon the edge of the gulf stream than in its centre, particularly in that part lying between Savannah and Tortugas, which would lessen the passage made via Key-West.

4th. A steamer can enter the harbor of Key-West at any hour of the night, immediately enter at the custom-house, make fast alongside of the coal wharf, and, without a moment's delay, proceed to coaling and watering, and, if necessary, leave before dawn of day. Should she take the Havana route, and arrive off the Moro Castle after sun-down, she must anchor and wait until nine o'clock on the following day, before any communication is made with the shore; and the day is well nigh gone before coaling is commenced, thus consuming nearly twenty hours of her valuable time.

5th. A steamer can be coaled at Key-West, as has been fairly proved, in less time than at Charleston, as soon as at New-York, and in one-fourth of the time consumed at Havana.

6th. Vessels not wishing pilots can enter the harbor of Key-West free of pilotage; at Havana, pilotage is invariably enforced.

7th. Coal can be landed as cheap, can be stored in yards in immediate proximity to the landing, and be placed in the bunkers by man or horse power, in less time and at less expense than at Havana, where the coal is passed on board in baskets from launches alongside, a slow and tedious process.

8th. Provisions of all kinds can be purchased, at prices in favor of Key-West, to the amount of duty levied on the same at Havana—they all being exported to that city from the United States. Fresh meats are sold at less rates in our *now* small market than the steamers pay the Havana butchers. Were there an increased demand, prices would come down. Tampa Bay, two days' sail from Key-West, is perhaps the finest cattle market in the south. Full-grown cattle can be bought in that town, to an unlimited extent, for $10 per head. Green turtle, weighing from one to five hundred pounds, abound on our coast, and can be delivered for three cents per pound. No better meat can be taken to sea than turtle. It can be kept for twenty days alive, requires no food nor care save watering, and the entire animal is eatable. It can be roasted, stewed, boiled, fried, force-balled, and souped, to satisfy the appetites of salted Californians. The fish market of Havana is supplied by our smacks, so there can be no competition in that line. Our waters are alive with the finest varieties, and we could fill half the markets in the states.

9th. The only articles that Havana could furnish the steamers at less rates are fruit and vegetables; but we doubt whether she would be able, in one year from the day that Key-West is made a

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depot, to compete with the Yankees of Florida in these productions. Should there be a demand to justify the expenditures, half the state would be turned into fruiteries and vegetable gardens, and the result would show that the Spaniard, with his rich soil and mild climate, had found a successful competitor.

10th. There is no sweeter water carried to sea than that afforded by our large cisterns. Rain-water never becomes sour, nor does it acquire an unpleasant bilgy taste, but it improves with age, and remains pure for years. Our water is superior to the Havana river water, and is sold for the same sum.

11th. Passengers meet, at Key-West, with no obstacles in landing. There are no landing permits, nor passports, nor boat hire, nor danger of any kind in getting on shore; nor is there extortion of any kind. They are upon the soil of freedom, and among their own people. The above are some of the reasons why Key-West should become a depot for the United States mail steamships.

12th. A telegraphic wire can be carried across the Key and along the coast, connecting at Savannah with the New-York lines, at as little expense as over any like distance in the states, and thus enable the California news to be published in New-York four days in advance of the mails. As no wire can be carried across the gulf from Havana, a telegraph is impracticable from that city.

ART. III.—EARLY LIFE IN THE SOUTH-WEST.

No. II.

MAJOR JAMES KERR, PIONEER, OF TEXAS.

THE effort to rescue from oblivion the memory and noble conduct of the pioneers of the south-west, in a work like De Bow's Review, is alike worthy of our applause and our aid. No class of men of modern times furnishes more novel and interesting material for sketches of the kind than the pioneers of Texas.

Texas was first settled by a class of men who have been greatly traduced and misunderstood—those who sought an honorable field of adventure, in the anticipation of bettering their condition in life, and laying the foundation for the comfort and independence of their descendants. The occasional presence of an outlaw constituted but an exception to the general truth, and it is beyond denial that the first settlers had fewer vicious men among them than those who emigrated after and in consequence of the revolution of 1835.

Prominent among the early pioneers of colonial Texas was the gentleman whose name heads this article, Major James Kerr, whose history, while it presents no extraordinarily distinguishing fact, is full of interesting incidents, and entitles it to a place in this connection.

He was the son of the Rev. James Kerr, a respectable Baptist minister, whose father was an Irishman. The latter resided in Pennsylvania, but in 1780 the father of the subject of this sketch removed and settled two miles from Danville, now Boyle county, Kentucky, where James was born on the 24th September, 1790, and was one of five sons and four daughters. At that day it was impossible to afford the means of acquiring a good education in that new and infested region. To defend the country from savage inroads required all the time and means the settlers had; and hence the children grew up with simply the rudiments of an English education. Their father, however, as well as their mother, possessed a strong mind, well stored with useful knowledge, and by their efforts they were blessed in imparting to their growing family much that was valuable to them in after life, and to direct their minds in the path of virtue and patriotism. Through their mother, who was a Wells, they were first cousins to the great western orator and statesman, Phillip Doddridge, of Virginia, who died in Congress, in 1832.

A portion of the family removed to Missouri, then a part of Spanish Louisiana, in 1797. The parents visited the same distant region in 1799, where the mother died near St. Louis; and in 1808 the remainder removed and settled in St. Charles county. The four surviving sons were just arriving at manhood when

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the war broke out in 1811–12, and early enrolled themselves in the volunteer service, and acquitted themselves throughout the struggle with much credit. Thomas, the younger brother, was one of the youngest volunteers in the field. He and William were employed in several trying emergencies, and did well. They proved then and in after life to be made of good material; Thomas having, as a citizen, and in various responsible public stations, ever sustained an unimpeachable reputation, went to the grave in peace and honor in January, 1849, in Lawrence county, Missouri. Richard Kerr, than whom a purer man never lived, not only acquired a good name as a soldier and officer in that war, but served his fellow-citizens of Missouri, and afterwards of Illinois, in the legislature many years, and the United States government in several capacities with fidelity, and ever enjoyed a rare degree of popular esteem; indeed, he was almost idolized by his friends, and had no enemies. He died on a visit to Texas, December, 1852. William, the only survivor, still resides in Missouri.

Having thus digressed a moment, we will return to James Kerr, the pioneer. During the war of 1812, notwithstanding he was very young, he filled various military stations, and was in several engagements, in which he displayed that cool intrepidity that afterwards sustained him for so many years in the wilds of Texas. In the summer of 1813 he was second in command at Boone's defeat on the Illinois river, in which they were routed, and hotly pursued for 24 hours. He was awarded great praise for his bearing on that occasion.

During the same season he and two other men were ambushed and attacked by 17 Indians, at the mouth of Salt River, in Missouri, in which his horse was three times wounded under him, and finally killed. The party, through his cool daring and a well-contrived *ruse*, after a chase of six miles, escaped.

After the war he was chosen sheriff of St. Charles county, then extending to Boons-lick, and now comprehending some ten large counties. In this capacity he served four years, and then removed to St. Genevieve county (in 1819–20), where he had married. He had not been long there till he was elected to the House of Representatives, and at the next election to the State Senate, over his father-in-law, Major Caldwell, one of the most popular men in the state. While serving in the legislature he took strong ground in favor of encouraging, by all legitimate means, the Santa Fe trade, then in its infancy, and warmly and prophetically contended that it would become a great source of wealth to Missouri.

He had at an early day contracted an intimate friendship with the lamented Gen. Stephen F. Austin, who had long resided in that portion of Missouri, and was then planting his infant colony in Texas. Austin knew the man, and sought by every means to induce him to relinquish his seat in the Senate, and remove to Texas, and after mature reflection he resolved to do so.

He arrived at Brazoria in March, 1825, with his family and servants, when there were but few families in the colony. During the following summer his young and amiable wife and two of his three children sickened and died, thus stamping his entrance into the wilderness with the greatest calamity known to the common lot of man.

There was then no American settlement west of the Colorado river; but Green De Witt, of Missouri, had just contracted for a colony on the Guadalupe and La Vaca rivers, and solicited Major Kerr to become surveyor-general of it; and until his (De Witt's) final removal with his family, to take charge of the colony. This he consented to do, and in September, 1825, he settled near where Gonzales now stands, on the Guadalupe; built suitable cabins for present use, and commenced a survey of the colony. He had with him, besides his servants, five or six young men, among whom was that remarkable man afterwards so distinguished as a spy, and known as *Deaf Smith*. Very soon another family settled near him—that of Francis Berry, who died in January, 1853, near Lockhart, Texas.

The country was then occupied by the numerous wandering tribes of Indians, who have since become so famous in Texan history. Parties of these savages frequently visited the little settlement and generally appeared pacifically disposed; but they still showed a lurking opposition to having the country surveyed, a process they little understood, yet to their minds it foreboded no good. Kerr subsisted his party almost

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exclusively upon wild game and coffee, as it was impossible to procure other supplies. A gentleman of Missouri, looking at the country, and having an introductory letter to him, found him intently drawing maps, without any food on hand excepting a venison ham.

In June, 1826, he was called to San Felipe on business with Austin; and while absent, a portion of his household started to a dance on the Colorado, some 60 miles, to celebrate the 4th of July. While encamped and asleep on the second night of July, they were attacked by a body of Indians, one of the men badly wounded, their horses taken, and the party routed. Returning next day to Kerr's house, they found it deserted, one man dead and scalped in the yard, the house robbed and partially burned, and other evidences of savage barbarity around. Passing on to Berry's house, they found it deserted, and on the door, written with charcoal, a memoranda, that they were retreating to the Colorado, whither the defeated and weary men and women again started, and reached three days afterwards in a suffering condition.

This unexpected outbreak of the Indians, and the weakness of the colony, determined Kerr for the present to settle on the La Vaca, nearer the coast, and nearer succor, which he did in October, 1826, but continued the survey of De Witt's colony.

Soon afterwards, De Witt arrived with his family, and they built a little fort on the La Vaca, since known as the "Old Station." Here the germ of the colony remained and made corn in 1827. During the latter year, what was known as the Fredonian war, headed by Edwards, broke out at Nacogdoches, the avowed object of which was to establish an independent republic. The far-seeing Austin and his colonists, in their weak condition, looked upon the step as most suicidal, and bitterly opposed it. A commission of five discreet persons, headed by Major Kerr, were sent on to Nacogdoches to negotiate and remonstrate with the leaders there, and greatly to the satisfaction of their constituents, succeeded in their mission.

Though Kerr continued his connection with De Witt's colony for several years, he remained permanently on the La Vaca, then in the municipality of Matagorda. He was commissioned by the governor, Gonzales, to lay out and name the capital of the colony, embracing in the tract four leagues or six miles square of land. In honor of the governor, he named the place *Gonzales*.

He afterwards became surveyor of De Leon's colony, and surveyed most of its lands. When De Witt removed his settlers from the "Old Station" to Gonzales, Kerr was left alone, and for some time remained without a neighbor nearer than 50 miles; but by prudence managed to retain the friendship of the Indians in the immediate vicinity. No man, without having experienced something of the kind, can form an adequate idea of the dangers and trials, the fluctuations of fear and hope, through which persons thus situated have to pass. It would require a volume to relate the thousand and one interesting incidents and "hair-breadth 'scapes" connected with this period of Major Kerr's life. In 1829-'30, however, a few families settled within fifteen miles, and ere long several others, till a nucleus was formed, around which a good population gradually gathered. Among those who first settled were the numerous family of the Sutherlands, Whites, and Menefees, from Alabama, embracing a high degree of respectability and intelligence, and who proved to be valuable auxiliaries.

In 1827 Major Kerr made a tour into Mexico, with the view of extending his knowledge of their laws and customs, and derived much benefit from it.

In 1832 a convention of delegates was called to frame a state constitution, to be sent on to the supreme government for approval, and Major Kerr was elected a member of that body; and again, in 1833, when a similar body was demanded for the same purpose, (the first having failed of success,) he was almost unanimously chosen as a delegate a second time. For bearing the constitution adopted by the latter body, Austin was imprisoned in the city of Mexico.

When the revolution broke out in 1835, Kerr was early on the frontier, and participated in the battle of Lipantitlan on the 4th of November. He was elected a member of the first consultation, but did not leave the army in time to take his seat; being, however, immediately chosen a member of the General Council of the Provisional Government, he at once entered upon the discharge

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of his duties, and did much that winter to aid the government and the troops in the field. While in the council, he was elected a member of the convention which declared Texas independent; but from the imminent danger of his family, on the approach of Santa Anna, he was compelled to postpone taking his seat; and before he could leave them in a safe position, the convention adjourned from necessity.

In the organization of the republic in March, 1836, he was appointed by President Burnet major in the army, and as a necessary precaution to enable him to devote his entire time to the public good, he sent his family to Missouri, where they remained some time. In the spring of 1837 he also visited his old home in that state, and received many flattering marks of respect from his former friends, and the people wherever he was known.

In 1838 he was elected to the Texan Congress, in which body he rendered invaluable service to the exposed frontier, in securing the passage of the first anti-dueling law, and the removal of the seat of government from Houston to Austin; a measure of cherished policy on the part of the western half of the republic. No man exerted more salutary influence in that body; nor was any one better qualified by long residence, patient investigation, and intimate acquaintance with the land laws and system of Mexico, to propose wise legislation in regard to the land titles of the country which he had adopted.

Soon after this, Major Kerr, long having devoted himself to the public interests, sought retirement, with the view of settling up his long-neglected private affairs, and devoting himself to the pursuits of agriculture and to the education of his children, (having married a second time in 1833.)

Still, much of his time was given to the public, rendered valuable as his information was in regard to the history of the country and the rights of property; and after our annexation to the mother country, he served as one of the United States marshals.

Like his distinguished relative, Philip Doddridge, Major Kerr possessed a remarkable memory that never failed him; a discriminating knowledge of men and things; a strong and well-balanced mind; and a nobleness of heart that ever made him a favorite with his friends—a high-toned and honorable gentleman, long to be remembered with grateful affection by those who knew him.

Though well advanced in life, and having for nearly fifty years lived through continued trials and hardships, incident to his residence in new and dangerous frontiers, he enjoyed good health and an unabated flow of good spirits, till the brief illness which closed his life.

He died suddenly, of pneumonia, at his old residence on the La Vaca, on the 23d of December, 1850, aged sixty years and three months. He chose to be interred on his own premises; and in presence of a large concourse of friends his remains were deposited in the spot selected by himself. A handsome marble tomb, with an appropriate inscription, marks the spot. Long will he be remembered as one of the noble pioneers of Western Texas.

ART. IV.—CHINA IN ONE THOUSAND EIGHT HUNDRED AND FIFTY-THREE.

ORIGIN — GEOGRAPHY — RIVERS — PUBLIC WORKS — WALL — CANAL — APPEARANCE OF THE COUNTRY — POPULATION — NATURAL HISTORY — AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS, TEA, RICE, ETC. — MINERALS — GOVERNMENT AND LAWS — REVENUES — EXPENDITURES — CURRENCY — PRODUCTIVE INDUSTRY — RELIGION — LITERATURE — THE OPIUM TRADE AND BRITISH WAR, ETC., ETC.

THE extension of our territory to the Pacific,—the inland and inter-sea communication we are proposing to open for the accommodation of our remote settlements, and for the promotion of India trade, are introducing, as we have frequently pointed out, a new era in the history of the American confederation. Every day is it more indispensable that we become acquainted with the means and the resources, the wealth and the power, of nations around us, with whom we are to have close commercial and social intercourse. In this view we have presented, in our pages, within the last few months, elaborate papers upon

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"Mexico," upon "Cuba," the "Sandwich Islands," "Australia," "South America," and "Russia." We proceed to other countries of equal interest.

It has been a question long agitated by the learned, whether the country now known as CHINA is identical with that of the ancient Seres, whose territory is called by Ptolemy and others *Serica*. M. Malte Brun is opposed to the identity, and considers the ancient Serica the same country as that of the most western regions of Thibet, or perhaps Cashmere, Little Thibet, and Little Bucharia. Most of the highest modern authorities, such as Gibbon,* Murray, Du Halde, Kloproth,† M. Abel-Remusat, De Guignes, and other distinguished orientalists, decide for the identity. Dr. Anthon rests the question upon the testimony of Ptolemy, whose descriptions, made from accounts which he heard in India, are found by modern geographers to be remarkably accurate, particularly regarding the river Hoang Ho, which he describes under the name of Βαύτισος, (Bautisus.) Vossius is positive on the subject. He says:‡ "Whoever doubts the identity of the Seres of the ancients and the modern Chinese, may as well doubt whether the sun which now shines be the same with that which formerly gave light."

It is a singular circumstance that the empire of China, second to none in population, and only second perhaps to that of Russia in extent, has ever borne a name abroad utterly unknown to its inhabitants. The ancient name *Seres* for the inhabitants, and *Serica* for the country, were derived from σηρ, the word used by the Greeks to denote silkworm, China being known to them only as the land of silk; but the inhabitants themselves know nothing of those names. In like manner the names *China* and *Chinese* are only known out of China. The origin of the name China has given rise to much discussion. "The people themselves have no such name for their country, nor is there much evidence that they ever did apply the term to the whole country."§ According to D'Herbelot,‖ the name was derived from *Tsin*, or Chin, a celebrated family in Chinese history, who held possession of a large portion of the western part of China; to which portion the name China being first given by travelers from the west, at length became extended to the whole empire. According to Kloproth, the name China is derived from the Malays, who call the country *Tchina*.

The Chinese have a variety of names for themselves and country. One of the most ancient is *Tien Hia*, meaning "beneath the sky," and denoting the world. Another name nearly as ancient is *Sz' Hai*; that is, "all within the four seas." The most common name given by the inhabitants to the country is *Chung Kwoh*, or *Middle Kingdom*, from the idea that China is the centre of the earth, the Chinese having as good a right to call their country the centre of the earth as the Greeks theirs. Hence Mr. Williams entitles his late invaluable work on China "*The Middle Kingdom*." The Malays, Hindoos, Persians, Arabians, and other Asiatic nations, apply to China the names Chin, Sin, Sinas, Tzinistae, and other similar names. It is thought, by eminent commentators, that the prophet Isaiah speaks of China as "the land of Sinim," in chap. xlix. 12.

The Tsin dynasty established the custom of calling the country by the name of the reigning dynasty. The present is the Tsing dynasty, and hence the empire is now called Ta Tsing Kwoh; that is, Great Pure Kingdom. The terms Han-jin Han-tsz'—that is, men or sons of Han—are now in common use by the people to denote themselves; the Han dynasty, which was in power from 202 B.C. to 220 A.D., being regarded by the Chinese as the most glorious of all their dynasties. The name Celestial Empire, T'ien Chan, is also used by the Chinese; but the term Celestials they have never ventured to adopt, that being, as Mr. Williams says, of entirely foreign origin.

EXTENT OF THE EMPIRE.—The most northern point of the empire is on the Russian frontier, in lat. 56°, 30′ N., the boundary line running along the range

* Gibbon's Rome, chap. xl.

† "Il n'y a plus de doute," says Kloproth, "que les *Seres* des Anciens ne soient les Chinois."—*Hist. de l'Asie*, p. 58.

‡ "Sinenses hodiemos antiquorum Seres esse qui dubitat, is quoque dubitet licet idemne nunc atque olim sol luxerit."

§ Williams's China, vol. i., p. 2. As we shall quote this work often, and rely upon it for a large amount of the information contained in this paper, we take occasion to say of it, that it is the latest and most complete work that has appeared on China. Mr. Williams resided many years in China, and is entitled to the highest credit for the valuable information he furnishes. His work is entitled "The Middle Kingdom." Wiley, New-York, 1851.

‖ Bibliothèque Orientale, tome 10, p. 8.

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of the Yablonoi mountains; Cape Patience, including the isle of Sagalien, is the most eastern point of the empire, in lat. 48° 10′ N. and long. 144° 50′ E. The western bend of the Belur-tag mountains, in lat. 70° E., is the western boundary. Cashgar is the largest town of importance on the western frontier. The southern boundary is extremely irregular. The most southern point of the Empire, including the Isle of Hainan, is in lat. 18° 10′ N. It has Siberia on the north; Independent Tartary on the west; India and the Birman Empire on the south; and the Pacific on the east. The general figure of the Empire is a rectangle; the longest line in which that can be drawn, from south-west to north-east, is 3,350 miles long. The length from east to west is about 77 degrees of long., and the width about 40. The area of this vast region, as estimated by McCulloch, after a most careful examination of the best authorities, is fixed at 5,300,000 square miles; which, says Mr. Williams, is much nearer the truth than the usual sum of 3,010,400 square miles. The circuit of the whole empire is 12,550 miles, or about half the circumference of the globe. The entire line of sea-coast is 3,350 miles. The area of the Chinese Empire comprises about one-third of that of the whole continent, and about one-tenth of the habitable globe. The Chinese Empire is nearly a third larger than the entire territory of the United States.

The Chinese themselves, who have an immense number of books on the geography of the empire, divide it into three principal divisions:

1. The *Eighteen Provinces*, or China Proper.

2. *Manchuria*, or all the north-eastern part of the empire, extending west to about the meridian of Peking.

3. *Colonial Possessions*, including Mongolia, Koko-nor, Thibet, and all other parts not mentioned above.

China Proper has an area of about 2,000,000 of square miles; or it is about the size of our states east of the Rocky Mountains.

About half of the whole surface of China Proper is very mountainous. The north-eastern portion is called the Great Plain, extending from the great wall north of Peking, 700 miles, to the 30th parallel of N. latitude. This vast plain is the richest portion of China, and is drained by the great navigable rivers, the Kiang or Blue River, and the Hoang-ho or Yellow River. From east to west this vast plain country has an average width of 200 miles. South of the parallel of 30° is the hilly country. The hills do not attain a great elevation, and their sides are cultivated. Their tops are covered with pines which have been planted. The region is well watered, and the greater portion of the surface is in a high state of cultivation. In the mountainous portion of China only the valleys, for the most part, are cultivated.

Rivers, Lakes, Coasts.—The Hoang-ho and the Yang-tse-kiang are among the largest rivers on the globe. The rivers of China, says Williams, are her glory, and no country can compare with her for natural facilities of inland navigation. The next two largest rivers are the Aneour and the Tarim. The Yang-tse-kiang is the largest river of China. It is about 3,000 miles long. The Yellow River is about 2,200 miles long. The Yang-tse-kiang is navigable nearly 2,000 miles for boats, and for ships of the largest size, some 300 or 400 miles. The river is very deep. It is found to be over 120 feet deep 300 miles from the sea. Its banks are not inundated to any great extent by freshets. The tides are perceptible 400 miles. The tributaries are very numerous and advantageously distributed; so that the river drains a basin of 750,000 square miles.

The Yellow River drains a basin nearly as large; but it is a rapid, turbid, furious stream, only navigable by steamers, which the Chinese have not. The cities on its banks are constantly in danger of being submerged. The disastrous overflowings of the river are a perpetual source of expenditure to the government, and of peril and calamity to the people.

Without a further description of individual rivers in China, it is sufficient to say, that numerous large rivers flow through the country, each some hundreds of miles in length, draining vast regions of country, unsurpassed in fertility. Their banks are lined with populous cities and towns.

The lakes of China are comparatively few and small, the largest, the Tung-ting Hu, being only 220 miles in circumference.

The coasts of China are lined throughout with multitudes of islands and rocky

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islets. Towards the north they are low and full of shoals. There are comparatively few good harbors.

PUBLIC WORKS OF CHINA.—These are very remarkable, and partake more of the useful than of the beautiful. They exhibit, however, in their construction, a lack of science and skill, which we might expect in a semi-enlightened race. The great wall naturally attracts attention first. It is called by the Chinese Wanli-Chang, or Myriad-mile Wall. It was built by Tsin Chi-kwongti, about 220 B. C., in order to protect his dominions from the northern tribes. It begins on the coast of Shanghai-wei, in lat. 40° 4′ N. As seen by Lord Jocelyn from the English ships, it appears as "scaling the precipices and topping the craggy hills of the country, which have along the coast a most desolate appearance."

Before terminating it runs along the shore several miles, and finally stops on the beach near a long reef. At its gates are garrisons and trading marts. In some parts it is double, a second wall branching off, inclosing a tract of country, and returning to the main wall again. The entire length of the wall, as estimated by McCulloch, is 1,250 miles. The construction is not uniform throughout its whole extent. The eastern part is generally composed of a mound of earth and pebbles, faced with masonry, supported on a coping of stone, the whole being about 25 feet thick at the base, and 15 at the top, and of a height varying from 15 to 30 feet. The top is terraced with tiles, and defended by a slight parapet, the thinness of which has been taken as a proof that cannon were unknown at the time it was erected. There are brick towers at intervals, some of them more than 40 feet high, but generally a little less. They are not built upon the wall, but are independent structures, usually about 40 feet square at the base, diminishing to 30 at the top. At particular spots they are of two stories, and then they are about 50 feet high.*

According to M. Gerbillon, the Great Wall beyond the Yellow River to its extremity, is chiefly a mound of earth or gravel about fifteen feet high, with only occasional towers of brick, and gateways of stone.

The Chinese wall is carried over the tops of the highest mountains, and down their steep sides into the deepest valleys, and continued by bridges over rivers. The entire wall is said to have been completed in ten years, without the forced labor of the people.

The next great public work of China is the Grand Canal, or Chah-ho, as the Chinese call it, that is, River of Floodgates; also Yun-ho, Transit River. Considering by whom and when this great work was constructed, it reflects the highest credit upon the Chinese nation. It connects Peking with Canton, and affords an easy communication to many other large places, with the great capital. The canal properly commences at Linsing-chan, in Shantung, in lat. 37° N. and long. 116° E., though the northern extremity is usually placed at Tientsinfu, near Peking.† The canal, in many places is only a natural river modified and regulated by sluices and embankments. There is a current constantly flowing. The canal crosses the Yellow river about 70 miles from its mouth, or rather flows into it; for the artificial level on both sides is much above the natural. The canal runs nearly parallel with the Hoang-ho for more than one hundred miles. The crossing of the Hoang-ho or Yellow River is a matter of some difficulty; for the canal on both sides being higher than the river, its waters rush down into it "like a millrace."‡ To pass from the canal to the river is easy; but to enter the canal again is extremely difficult. The Chinese have no knowledge of the art of constructing locks for canals. The boats entering the canal have to be dragged up the rapid current, at the entrance, by means of ropes attached to immense windlasses worked at the head of the rapids.

The crossing of the Hoang-ho is a matter of so much difficulty that it is never undertaken without a certain round of religious ceremonies. Mr. Barrow in his work says that the boatmen in every boat sacrifice a fowl and a pig, or some other animals, and daub the blood and hair upon the principal parts of the vessel. When they arrive at the middle of the stream, the captain pours out upon the waters an oblation of spirits. oil, salt, rice, meats, &c., to the Dragon King, while a man at his side beats a gong violently, and others burn fire-crackers and gilt-paper. On reaching the opposite side of the stream, the Dragon King

* Williams's China, vol. i, pp. 26-27.

† Williams's China, vol. i., p. 27.

‡ Davis's China, vol. i., p. 246.

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is again addressed in a volley of crackers, as a token of thanks for his propitious aid, and the captain and crew feast on the offerings—undoubtedly the most agreeable part of the whole ceremony.

The canal between the Yellow and Blue rivers, a distance of 90 miles, is constructed on the top of an artificial embankment kept together by walls of stone, except near the commencement, where an old bed of the Yellow river is used. The canal is thus elevated about 20 feet above the surrounding country, in some parts. It is about 200 feet wide, and has a current of about 3 miles an hour. The route is along the lowest districts so as to drain the country as much as possible. Several large towns and cities are situated along its banks; but being lower than the canal are in constant danger of being submerged. The repair of the embankments annually demands a vast expenditure of the government. The portion of the canal between the Yellow and Blue rivers was constructed in the 7th century by the princes of the Tang dynasty; all that part north of the Yellow river was made by the Mongols in the 13th century; and the extreme southern portion, that is, from the Blue river to the southern terminus at Hang-chou-fu, was completed by the Chinese under the Ming dynasty, in the 14th century. The entire length of the Imperial Canal of China is 650 miles, or nearly twice the length of the Erie Canal, but its great width cannot be compared with that of any other canal. In some places the excavations to obtain a level are 70 feet; and the embankments are 100 feet thick. There is much rudeness exhibited in the construction, but still the object of the canal is fully attained. There are several other canals in China, but there is little known concerning them. Many of them were made less for commercial than for draining purposes. One, for carrying off the waters of the Yellow river, is 100 miles long.

The public roads of China are not entirely neglected. M. De Guignes, who traveled 600 leagues in China, says, that he found many good roads, most of them wide and planted with trees, though not generally paved. In some parts he found paved roads in good condition. The roads about Peking are paved with stone slabs, and kept in good order. "Generally speaking, however," says he, "as is the case with most things in China, the roads are not well repaired."*

Passes through the mountains have been cut in many parts of China to facilitate transit. Three mountain passes traverse the Nan-ling mountain; one, north of Canton, according to Sir Geo. Staunton, rises 8,000 feet above the sea; yet vast quantities of goods are conveyed over this pass from Canton to the interior by *coolies* or porters. The Pe-ling and Ta-pa-ling ranges of mountains are overcome by an artificial road, sometimes conducting over yawning cliffs, by means of arches, and sometimes deeply cut through high mountains, the length of the whole road being 150 miles. In short, whenever intercourse is found expedient between any two parts of China, no natural impediments have been suffered to obstruct communication. The Chinese have found no labor, expense, or impediments, too gigantic to be undertaken.

General Appearance of the Country.—The districts on the sea-coast, says Mr. Gutzlaff,† are generally the best inhabited and richest; the tracts along the Blue river the most fertile. Large and flourishing cities are found only where a ready water communication with other parts of the empire can be carried on. The greatest sameness exists. In the larger ones are a few well-paved streets, lined with shops; but the greater part of the streets are very narrow, usually about eight feet wide, extremely filthy, and planted with mere hovels. The suburbs of many cities are much larger than the cities themselves; and it is by no means extraordinary to see an immense walled space, with no houses, where formerly a city stood. Villages and hamlets have a beautiful appearance at a distance, usually embowered among trees, between which the white-washed houses look prettily, but on entering them, one sees nothing but a heap of houses irregularly thrown together, the outside fair to behold, but the inside without furniture or comforts, and more filthy even than a stable. This, says Mr. Gutzlaff, does not apply to one district only, but it is common to most. Every thing in the villages presents an appearance of general decay, for a Chinaman seldom repairs his house before it is dilapidated. Elegance or ornament, orderly arrangement, or grandeur of de-

* Voyages à Peking, vol. ii., p. 214.
† China Opened, vol. i., pp. 57–8.

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sign, cleanliness or comfort, is almost unknown* in Chinese houses, cities, or gardens.

The general aspect of the country, says Mr. Williams, is perhaps as much modified by labor of man in China as in England, but the appearance of a landscape in the two countries is unlike. Whenever water is available canals and streams are dug or led upon the rice fields, and this kind of grain allows few or no trees to grow. The fields are divided by raised banks, which serve for pathways, and assist in confining the water when let in upon the growing crop. The bounds of other fields are denoted by heaps of stones or other landmarks. There are no walls, fences, or hedgerows. Although the fields and gardens are beautifully laid out, yet there appears in them little attention to elegance or pleasure. The gardens are few, and a Chinese grandee delights more in artificial landscapes, laid out in a small compass, than in an extensive park or a flower garden. The Chinese are decidedly utilitarian. The grandeur of natural scenery is in many parts of China as striking as in many parts of the world. Mountain crags, rivulets, and valleys, both picturesque and romantic, are found in most of the provinces. Commanding situations are chosen for temples and pagodas, the haunts of gross superstition and idolatry; and these are not only inhabited by the priests and idols, but they serve likewise for taverns, theatres, public halls and gambling houses. The building of houses is regulated by law, the dimensions being prescribed. Public halls have little to recommend them. The Chinese were never great architects; they can erect dwellings, not palaces.†

A lofty, solitary pagoda, an extensive temple shaded by trees in the opening of a valley or on a hill-side, or boats moving in every direction through narrow creeks or on broad streams, are some of the peculiar lineaments of Chinese scenery. No imposing mansions are found on the skirts of towns, for the people huddle together in hamlets and villages for mutual aid and security. No tapering spires pointing out the rural church, nor towers, pillars, domes or steeples in the cities, indicating buildings of public utility, rise above the low level of dun tiled roofs. No meadows or pastures containing herds and flocks are seen from the hill-tops in China; nor are coaches, steamers, or rail-road cars seen crossing the landscapes.‡

POPULATION.—The subject of the population of China is one upon which great difference of opinion exists. China has long been generally believed to be the most densely peopled country of any of considerable extent on the globe, and this opinion, most probably correct, is the result of the impression made upon the minds of all who have visited that celebrated country. The Jesuit Semedo, who resided in China 22 years, remarks that the vast numbers of people to be met with constantly, not only in the towns and cities, but on the highways, is very surprising. "On the highways," says he, "there is at all times as large a crowd as is usually to be met with on some great festival or public occasion." All travelers are struck with the immense population of China; and though estimates are exceedingly various, there is reason to believe that even the highest are not improbable. No census of the entire empire has been taken for 40 years, that of 1812 being the latest. We condense the following table from one given by Mr. Williams, in his work on China, which he says was derived "from the best sources accessible to foreigners:"

CENSUS OF THE NINETEEN PROVINCES, OR CHINA PROPER, FOR 1812.

Provinces.	Area in sq. miles.	Av'ge population to sq. mile.	Total Population.
Chihli	58,949	475	27,990,871
Shantung	65,104	444	28,958,764
Shonsi	53,268	252	14,004,210
Honan	65,404	420	23,037,171
Kiangsu	44,500	850	38,843,501
Ngonhwui	48,461	705	34,168,059
Kiongsi	72,176	320	33,046,999
Chekiang	39,150	671	26,256,784
Fuhkien	53,480	276	14,777,410
Hupeh	70,450	389	27,370,098
Hunan	74,320	251	18,652,507
Shensi	67,400	153	10,207,256
Konsuh	86,608	175	15,193,125
Sz'chuen	166,800	128	21,435,678
Kwongtung	79,456	241	19,174,030
Kwongsi	78,250	93	7,313,895
Kweichan	64,554	82	5,288,219
Yunnan	107,969	51	5,561,320
Shingking	—	—	2,167,286
Totals	1,297,999	268	362,447,183

This table, derived from the highest sources, and confirmed by most travelers in China, presents, nevertheless, some very astonishing, if not incredible results. The first province named is less in size than our State of Michigan; and

* Williams, vol. i., p. 35. † Gutzlaff. ‡ Williams.

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yet its population is greater than that of the whole United States! If all the people in the United States, at the present time, were to settle in Michigan, that state would not be as populous, according to the above table, as the single province of Chihli, in China, which province is smaller than Michigan by about 2000 square miles! One comparison more: the province of Kiangsu, which is only about the size of Ohio, has, by the above table, a population of about one and a half times that of the entire United States! Can it be?

Mr. McCulloch, who never saw China, is disposed to doubt all the statements made by the most eminent travelers, and by men who have lived many years in China. Mr. S. W. Williams, who has lived many years in China, and has written the latest work on that country, censures McCulloch, Malte Brun, the compilers of the Encyclopedia Americana, and others, for their rejection of the census, as given by the Chinese themselves, and by European residents of China. "It is very easy," says he, "for foreigners to say that they do not believe these censuses—to sit in their studies in Europe and contemptuously reject the researches and investigations of the Chinese and of travelers in China, at the same time that they give no authorities for their assertions. If the Chinese censuses are worth but little compared with those taken in European states, they are better than the guesses of foreigners who have never been in the country, or who have traveled only partially in it."*

The following is a statement of some of the most trustworthy censuses of China, taken at different periods, as collected by Mr. Williams:

Authorities.	Date of Census.	Population.
Grosier, De Guignes†	1736	125,046,245
" "	1743	157,343,975
Chinese Repository	1753	103,050,060
Yih-tung-chi, a Chinese work	1760	143,125,225
De Guignes	1760	203,916,477
"	1761	205,293,053
Allerstain, Grosier, De Guignes	1762	198,214,553
Chinese Repository, vol. i.	1790	155,249,897
Dr. Morrison	1792	307,467,400
Lord Macartney	1792	333,000,000
Chinese Repository, vol. i., p. 359	1812	362,467,183

The statements of Dr. Morrison were taken by him from Chinese works. That of Lord Macartney, who was ambassador to China from England, rests on Chinese authority. The census of 1812, as given above, was considered by Drs. Morrison and Bridgman, who must be ranked among the highest authorities, as "the most accurate that has yet been given of the population."

Those who object to this great population, do so chiefly on the ground that the well-known vanity of the Chinese would naturally induce them to exaggerate their numbers as much as possible before foreigners; but we doubt very much this alleged vanity of the Chinese. We doubt whether they are more vain than other nations. They are said to regard all other people—all foreigners—as barbarians. But did not the Romans do the same? Did not the Greeks regard all others as barbarians? Assuredly the Greeks must have possessed quite as much, if not more, vanity than the Chinese, to enable them to regard even the Romans as barbarians.

The argument against the Chinese census, then, derived from their national vanity, is a poor one. The Chinese have just as much right to be vain as any other nations—even the French and English.

The fact is, that the censuses, as that of 1812, and others taken by the Chinese government, were not intended for the public eye; they were taken, moreover, under circumstances which would greatly tend to render them too small rather than too large; for, the people in China have ever endeavored, as the people now do and have done in all Spanish countries, to cause as small a number to be registered as possible, hoping thereby to escape a heavy "contribution" to be levied on them by the government. Dr. Morrison says: "We know, from several authorities, that the people are in the habit of diminishing rather than increasing their numbers in their reports to government." "One reason for doing so," says Mr. Williams, "is, among others, that the local authorities may pocket the difference in the taxes assessed for collection from their districts." Again, says Mr. Williams: "The distances in miles between places given in Chinese books, correspond very well with the real distances; the number of districts, towns, and villages in the departments and provinces, as stated in their local and general topographical

* Williams's China, vol. i., p. 215.
† He lived twenty years in China.

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works, agree with the actual examination, so far as it can be made. Why should their censuses, then, be charged with falsehood and gross error, when, however much we may doubt them, we cannot disprove them, and when the weight of evidence derived from actual observation rather confirms them than otherwise?" *

The three censuses, of those we have given above, deserving of the most credit, are, according to Mr. Williams, those of 1753, 1792, and 1812. From 1753 to 1792, a period of thirty-nine years, there was an increase of 104,636,882, or about two-and-a-half per cent. per annum. During that period China enjoyed uninterrupted peace, under the strong and able government of Kienlung. From 1792 to 1812 there was an increase of 54,126,679, or not quite one per cent. per annum, for the period of twenty years. If the population has increased at the same rate only since 1812, the present population of China Proper must exceed 450,000,000. What the population of the entire empire is, including Manchuria, Ili, Thibet, and Mongolia, there are no data upon which to rest any thing but a conjecture.

One among many reasons for so dense a population in China is, that emigration to foreign countries is forbidden by law, and there is no country in the world where the laws are more rigidly enforced. That the soil of China is capable of supporting so great a population it is easy to show. It is estimated that in China Proper there are 812,000,000 of acres of arable land, or 2¾ acres to an individual. The lands are very fertile, and in some of the provinces two crops of rice are raised in one year, besides a crop of sweet potatoes, cabbages, turnips, and other vegetables. The Chinese, too, are proverbially industrious.

The enormous population of China, as given above, when compared with that of other countries, is truly astonishing. Lucca is the most densely populated state in all Europe, there being 400 to the square mile. Belgium has 321, and Lombardy 260 to the square mile; England, 241, and France 223. But look at the preceding table, and it will be seen that some of the provinces of China have a population of 850, 705, and 671 inhabitants to the square mile, and that the average for the whole country is 268 to the square mile. But astonishing as such a dense population may seem, it is not entirely without a parallel. Capt. Wilkes, in his "Exploring Expedition," states that the population of one of the Figi islands was over 1,000 per square mile. Lord North's Island, one of the Pelew group, has 400 to the square mile.

* Williams's China vol. i., p. 215.

ANIMALS OF CHINA.—The denseness of the population has long since entirely driven out all wild quadrupeds; and there are also few domestic ones, such as are found in European countries. Beasts of burden are in a great degree superseded by the means of transport afforded by the numerous rivers and canals, and by the coolies or porters, a class of athletic men, who take the place of animals in carrying burdens and in dragging boats. Animals are excluded, to leave more food for men. There are no meadows for feeding cattle; but the entire soil is used in raising food for the inhabitants. Wild cats are sometimes caught, and are considered a great dainty. Monkeys are found in the southern provinces. What few horses and asses are found in China are small, and very inferior in every respect. The buffalo is sometimes used in plowing. Dromedaries are used between Peking and Tartary. There are also hogs, goats, and sheep. There is but one variety of dogs in the country, an animal about one foot high and two long, resembling a small spaniel. Rats are very abundant, and furnish the common people with meat. They are very large, and destructive to crops.

Of the *birds* in China, there are the eagle, the falcon, the magpie, crows, sparrows, cormorants, curlews, quails, larks, pheasants, pigeons, the rice-bird, and many species of aquatic birds. Cormorants are used by the Chinese for catching fish. The falcon is imperial property, and the magpie is sacred to the reigning family.

Fish form a very important part of the food of the Chinese, and great care is taken in raising them in artificial fish-ponds. The gold and silver fishes are kept in glass globes as ornaments. Among the fish eaten are the cod, sturgeon, mullet, carp, perch, sea-bream, &c.; crab-fish and oysters are common on the coast.

The larger species of *reptiles* are unknown in China. Frogs, lizards, and

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fresh-water tortoises are common. Venomous serpents are very rare. The *insects* of China are numerous. The silkworm is the most important, affording employment and riches to thousands of the inhabitants. The Chinese excel all other nations in rearing the silkworm. The northern and western provinces are terribly afflicted by the plague of swarms of locusts. Their voracity is such that it is not uncommon for them to occasion so much destruction as to reduce thousands of the people to starvation. Scorpions and centipedes are abundant. Spiders are numerous; one species is very large, and devours small birds after catching them in their webs constructed on the branches of trees. It is peculiar to China. Butterflies of gigantic size and brilliant colors abound in the neighborhood of Canton. There is a kind of bee, called the white-wax bee, furnishing the whole nation with wax, which it deposits on a particular kind of tree, furnished by the natives with nests to attract the insect. Fireflies are common. White ants are also numerous and troublesome. The Chinese eat many kinds of insects, as locusts, grasshoppers, ground-grubs, and silkworms.*

Vegetable Productions. — Many species of pine, cypress and yew, exist in China, and furnish a large proportion of timber and fuel. China may, however, be said to be a very poorly timbered country, and is, indeed, remarkable for not containing any very large trees. Timber is scarce. The pines are small. The larch is common on the hills. The juniper and thuja are found in gardens. The oak is seldom seen, the fir-tree supplying its place on the hills. The willow is common in all parts of China, and grows to a considerable size. The chestnut, walnut, and hazlenut, are all found in China, affording tolerable fruit. The took-fruit (artocarpus) is common at Canton. There are many species of the banian or fig-tree. A species of mulberry furnishes materials for the manufacture of paper. Hemp is cultivated; also the castor-oil plant. Palms, laurel, cassia, and caper trees are common, especially in the south; also the banana, guava, orange, papaw, cocoa, litchi, peach, apricot, vine, pomegranate, and tallow tree, which resembles the birch. The fruit of the tallow-tree grows in bunches, inclosed in a brown capsule, which incloses three kernels all coated with tallow, themselves containing an oil much used for the lamp, while the tallow is converted into candles. There is also the varnish tree, resembling the ash, exuding a valuable essential oil, which produces a cutaneous disease if dropped upon the skin. The camphor laurel is another very valuable tree of China, producing large quantities of camphor. The tree called by the Chinese kwan-lon, contains a pith which when ground is an excellent substitute for flour. A species of sycamore is also common, the rind of which affords an excellent paper.

The great plant of China is the *tea* shrub, called by the natives, *cha*. It grows to the height of 4 or 5 feet, and resembles the myrtle; the flower is compared by some writers to the small white hedge roses. The plant will grow in the most sterile places, but the quality of the leaf depends upon the soil and the age of the plant. The best leaves are taken from plants three years old. The leaves are gathered three times a year, in the early spring, in the beginning and in the end of summer. European botanists have been able to distinguish only two species of the tea-plant, those producing the black and the green tea; but the Chinese enumerate, in their books, as many hundreds. It is still a matter of dispute whether the different sorts are distinct species or mere varieties. It is believed by Loureiro, Mr. Williams, and others, that all the differences in the plant are the result of difference of culture. Pruning the plants to increase the quantity of leaves prevents it from exceeding 4, 5, or 6 feet in height; but in Assam, where it is found wild, it grows to the height of 30 feet. The soil most favorable to the growth of the plant is a rich sandy earth, with a large proportion of vegetable mould; and hill-sides, with a good exposure, and a supply of water, are the best situations. There are very few large tea plantations in China; each little farmer raises a few shrubs, and sells the leaves to large dealers in the article. The knowledge of the tea-plant cannot be traced back, in China, farther than A. D. 350; and its general introduction does not date prior to about A. D. 800.

The camphor tree of China affords both timber and gum for exportation and domestic use. The tree itself is large,

* Williams's China., vol. i., pp. 447-275.

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and furnishes excellent planks, beams and boards for building. The gum is procured from the branches, leaves, and chips, by first soaking them in water until the liquid becomes saturated with it, when it is turned out into an earthen basin to coagulate. It is then placed in an iron vessel in alternate layers with fine earth, and over which, when filled, another basin is luted, after placing some mint upon the top to hinder the clayey particles from ascending; on applying a slow heat the camphor sublimes into the upper vessel. It comes to market in a crude state, and is usually refined in Europe.*

The bamboo, a plant belonging to the grass tribe, is of most extensive use in China. It is cultivated about villages for its pleasant shade and beauty, and a grove furnishes from year to year culms of all sizes for the various uses to which it is applied. "No plant," says Mr. Williams, "imparts so oriental and rural an aspect to a garden or village as the clumps of this graceful and stately grass. The stalks shoot up their wavy plumes to the height of 50 feet and upward, and swaying themselves to every breeze form an object of great elegance well befitting so useful a plant." There are some 60 varieties. The tender shoots are used for food, when four or five inches high. The roots are carved into images of men, birds, &c.; the tapering culms are used for poles, joists of houses, ribs of sails, shafts of spears, tubes of aqueducts, and the handles and ribs of umbrellas and fans. The leaves are made into rain cloaks, and are also used for the thatching of houses. Almost everything, in short, is manufactured, by the Chinese, out of the bamboo: baskets, houses, clothing, furniture, etc., etc.

Tobacco, cotton and sugar are also cultivated in China. The garden vegetables cultivated are, turnips, carrots, sweet potatoes, and pot-herbs of every kind. A kind of white cabbage is the principal food of every class, and is said to be really delicious. Rice, owing to the abundance of water in China, is brought to greater perfection there than in any other part of the globe; and there is scarcely any sort of grain that is not cultivated in some part of China. *Ginseng* is the medical plant the most esteemed by the Chinese, and is esteemed by them as a panacea. Ginger is cultivated through all the interior. The aloe is common near Canton. The date palm is unknown in China. The rattan is said to be a native of China, but this is doubted by Mr. Williams, who thinks that it is imported for use from Borneo. Rhubarb is abundant, and the Chinese believe that all the rest of the world is dependent upon them alone for this valuable purgative—that foreigners are forced to resort to China to procure this *only* means of relieving themselves of an otherwise irremediable costiveness. This was actually, says Mr. Williams, the argument used by Commissioner Lin, when recommending certain restrictive regulations to be imposed upon the foreign trade, because he supposed that merchants from abroad would be compelled to buy rhubarb at any price, there being none elsewhere.† The fruits of China are the same as those of Europe; also the flowers.‡

Mineral Products.—The geology of China is little known. Our knowledge is mostly limited to desultory notices of the coasts, and of such parts as embassies have hastily traveled over. The vast table lands of the empire are utterly unknown. The metallic and mineral productions of China, used in the arts, are nearly the same as those of other countries, and from their cheapness they must be abundant. Coal is used as fuel every where in China. The mountains of Shansi and Chihli afford it in vast quantities. The coal is both anthracite and bituminous. Crystallized gypsum is abundant, and is used by the Chinese in the arts. During the English opium war, in 1843, the Chinese bakers fed the English on it largely, by putting it into their loaves, not to poison the English, but to make the loaves heavier.

Limestone is abundant in China, both the common clouded marble and the blue transition. The Chinese do not know of the existence of lime in limestone. Slabs of limestone and argillaceous slate are used for floors in houses. The stone used at Canton and at Amoy, for building, is granite, and no people, says Mr. Williams, excel the Chinese in cutting it. Sandstone, mica slate, and other stone, are also used for building. Nitre is manufactured by the Chinese in large quantities, for gunpowder; also

* Williams's China, vol. ii., p. 127.

† Williams's China, vol. i., p 282.

‡ China Opened, vol. i., pp. 33, 34. Malte Brun.

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alum, which they obtain by lixiviating shale. Large quantities of both alum and nitre are sent to India. Sal ammoniac is obtained from the lakes of Mongolia, and blue and white vitriol by roasting pyrites. The Chinese manufacture their salt from sea water. All the common metals except platina are found in China, and the supply would be abundant for all purposes if the Chinese knew the art of mining and smelting as practised by Europeans. The country is probably very rich in iron, lead, tin, and quicksilver; European skill and knowledge being all that is necessary to develop the mineral wealth of the empire.

Gold is collected in the sands of many of the rivers, and silver mines are extensive. They are monopolized by government. The exportation of silver is very considerable, showing that it must be abundant. The Chinese are supposed to be ignorant of the use of mercury in separating gold and silver from their ores. Cinnabar occurs copiously in Shensi. Copper is also abundant, both as native and as a sulphuret. "The rivers must be very rich," says Mr. Williams, "judging from the immense amounts used." Lead is abundant in China, but as the Chinese are poor miners, foreign lead is more used. The lead of our tea-chests was imported mostly from Galena into China, passing down the Mississippi in rude "pigs," and coming back to us enveloping "*Hyson*," "*Souchong*," and "*Imperial*," in fancy boxes covered with Chinese characters.

China also furnishes the crystal, ruby, amethyst, sapphire, topaz, and diamonds; also porphyry and jasper.

There are many hot springs in the provinces of Shensi, Sz'chuen, and Chihli. A French missionary describes the fire-wells, in Sz'chuen, "as apertures resembling artesian springs, sunk in the rock to the depth of 1500 or 1800 feet, whilst their breadth does not exceed five or six inches. The water procured from them contains salt and nitre. When a lighted torch is applied to the mouth of some of these which have no water, fire is produced with great violence, and a noise like thunder, bursting out into a flame 20 or 30 feet high. The gas has a bituminous smell and a blue flame."* China abounds in mineral springs.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS.—The theory of government in China is the patriarchal, the emperor being the sire, and his officers the responsible elders of the provinces, departments, and districts. The government contains the elements of stability, but not of improvement; all its institutions are defective. The first monarchs are considered as having derived their power from heaven, the "divine right of kings" being as fashionable in China as in Europe. The overthrow of Yu, of the Hia dynasty, was a work undertaken by Chingtang, in the name of heaven, the pretext being that Yu had not fulfilled the decrees of heaven. Chingtang was successful, and founded the Shang dynasty, 1766, B. C. Wu-wang, founder of the Chan dynasty, did the same thing in 1122, B. C. The writings of Confucius embody the doctrines of those ancient dynasties, and he refers to the conduct of those most ancient emperors for the truth of his instructions. The doctrines of Confucius have taken such a hold upon the minds of the Chinese that the rulers, for many ages, have implicitly followed his teachings, as the only ones that had any force with the people, and the only ones that could render their sway secure. They have accordingly embodied them more and more into laws, and based all institutions upon them. Through all the convulsions and wars that have from time to time disturbed the country, the writings of Confucius have been the chief means of preserving the institutions of China, and of maintaining that permanency and stationary character which marks everything Chinese. All laws are based upon those writings, and all Chinese education. They are the oracles of political and religious wisdom.

The Emperor of China is absolute; his will is law; and he is not responsible to any earthly tribunal for any of his acts. He is, in general, expected to govern according to the written code of the empire, and generally does so, as a matter of expediency; but he has the power, and does sometimes disregard the codes. In China, as in ancient Rome, fathers have full power over their families; and on the same principle the emperor is held to be the father of the whole Chinese people, and to have the same unlimited power over them, that each individual has over his own children. In China, every thing is determined by custom or by immemorial practice, from

* Murray's China, vol. iii. p. 281.

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which it would be highly dangerous for even the emperor to depart. The Chinese is emphatically a government of precedents, and the monarch is in reality the creature of custom and etiquette. All employments are bestowed according to fixed rules on those who have obtained certificates of proficiency, after passing their examinations.

Next after the emperor the court is composed of four principal ministers, two Tartar and two Chinese, who form the great council of state, assisted by certain assessors from the han-lin, or great college, who have studied the sacred books of Confucius, the basis of all Chinese law. These great functionaries are the imperial cabinet. The actual business of the empire is executed by the *Le-poo*, or six boards:

1. The Board of Official Appointments.
2. The Board of Revenue.
3. The Board of Rites and Ceremonies.
4. The Military Board.
5. The Supreme Court of Criminal Jurisdiction; and
6. The Board of Public Works.

There is also a colonial office, composed of Manchoos and Mongols; so that the respective tributary princes may have confidence in referring whatever concerns their interests to their own countrymen. Each province is governed by a viceroy, appointed by board No. 1; and every town is presided over by a magistrate. Subordinate officers superintend the lesser divisions. All these functionaries are removed every three years; and that no ties of kindred may interfere with the strict discharge of their duties, the viceroys and magistrates are forbidden to marry within the limits of their rule. For all state offices merit alone is the qualification. The son of the poorest peasant or artificer may offer himself as a candidate, and, by talent and application, rise to the highest employments. A singular expedient is adopted to ascertain with what fidelity the viceroys and magistrates perform their duties: censors are sent out by the emperor into all the provinces to watch over the conduct of the viceroys and magistrates, and to report all delinquencies; but in China, as in Europe and America, this system of inspecting the conduct of officers in power, has proved a failure, the influence of money being found, in general, sufficient, if not to silence all bad reports, at least to delay justice until it could no longer be successfully pursued.

The imperial code of China, called *Ta Tsing* Liuh Li, i. e., statutes and rescripts of the great pure dynasty, contains all the laws of the empire. This code is the accumulation of twenty centuries. The laws are arranged under seven leading heads: general, civil, fiscal, ritual, military, criminal laws, and those relating to public works. This great code has been translated by Sir Geo. Staunton. A new edition is published by authority every five years. The last appeared in 1830, when the emperor ordered the supreme court to make very few alterations in the edition then about to appear, lest wily litigators should take advantage of the discrepancies between the new and old edition. The edition of 1830 is in 28 volumes, and is accessible to every one in China. In China there are no authorized reports of cases and decisions, either of the provincial or supreme courts, published for general use, though a record of them is kept in the court where they were decided; and the publication of such adjudged cases, as a guide to officers, is not unknown. An extensive collection of notes, comments, and cases, illustrating the practice and theory of the laws, was appended to the edition of 1799.*

A writer in the Edinburgh Review speaks of this Chinese Code as follows: "The most remarkable thing in this code is its great reasonableness, clearness, and consistency; the business-like brevity and correctness of the various provisions, and the plainness and moderation of the language in which they are expressed. There is nothing here of the monstrous verbiage of most other Asiatic productions; none of the superstitious devilation, the miserable incoherence, the tremendous *non sequiturs*, and eternal repetitions of those oracular performances; nothing even of the turgid adulation, the accumulated epithets, and fatiguing self-praise of other eastern despotisms; but a clear, concise and distinct series of enactments, savoring throughout of practical judgment and European good sense; and it not always conformable to our improved notions of expediency in this country, in general approaching to them more nearly than the codes of most other nations."

This criticism is undoubtedly correct

* Williams's China, vol. i., p. 200.

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so far as regards the merits of the Chinese code, when compared, in a literary point of view, with other oriental productions, such as the Zendavesta and the Puranas; but we find difficulty in discovering how any code of laws can be praised for "its great reasonableness," and "its practical judgment and European good sense," which, like this Chinese code, punishes the petty crime of using abusive language with strangulation; which gives permission to a judge to torture criminals to obtain confessions; which makes corporal punishment almost the universal penalty, offences the most trivial and the gravest, whether committed by persons in the highest or the lowest walks of life, being visited by so many strokes of the bamboo. These, however, are not always inflicted. Persons under 15 or above 70, or maimed, may escape the bamboo by paying a sum of money, except the crime be a capital offence. But is this "consistency," "justice?" Is this what the Edinburgh Reviewer calls "European good sense?" The rich would always escape the bamboo; while the poor man, although he might be less guilty, would have to pay the penalty with his bare back, simply because he was poor. Such is Chinese justice; and such kind of justice, though not recognized by our more enlightened codes, is not unfrequently exhibited in the practical operation of even European and American laws. Money is made to cover a multitude of sins, and sometimes even the highest crimes allowing the rich criminal to escape, while the poor one is left either to groan out a life of ignominious hard labor, or to dangle from a lofty gallows, for the edification of the thoughtful, and the amusement of the vicious and hardened rabble.

Edinburgh reviewers are not always quite right, though they enjoy a high reputation. Their productions often resemble Chinese villages, which, when seen at a distance by some weary traveler, in the golden light of an oriental sunset, appear all that is fair and beautiful: a brilliant cluster of cheerful dwellings nestling about the foot of a gorgeous pagoda; but on entering them he finds them only a chaotic mass of dilapidated hovels, thrown together without order, and filled with squalid poverty and wretchedness. Assuredly, this Edinburgh reviewer could not have given the Chinese code even a passing examination. He speaks of its "clearness," and its "business-like brevity." The code contains neither. Its greatest defect is its vagueness. Let us take one example: The 386th section of the criminal law "ordains that whoever is guilty of improper conduct, *contrary to the spirit of the laws*, but not a breach of any specific article, shall be punished at least with forty blows, and with eighty when of a serious nature." So vague, indeed, is the code, that the degree of liberty actually possessed by a citizen cannot be made out from it, and his rights are unknown in law. As to "business-like brevity," "the code exhibits," says Mr. Williams, "a minute attention to trifles, and an effort to legislate for every possible contingency, which must perplex the judge when dealing with the infinite shades of difference occurring in human actions." He further adds:— "There are now many vague and obsolete statutes, ready to serve as a handle to prosecute offenders for the gratification of private pique; and although usage and precedent both combine to prove their disuse, malice and bribery can easily effect their reviviscence and application to the case."

The Chinese code is certainly far superior to any other Asiatic production, in a literary point of view; but its defects are serious, gross, and stamp the whole production with barbarism. In our article on Japan, in the December number of the Review, 1852, we noticed the horrid cruelty of the criminal code of the Japanese. The penalty for treason is the same in China as in Japan; the guilty person is condemned to a lingering death, and his innocent children are strangled, the Chinese criminal code involving the innocent family of an offender in the retribution for his crime. Mr. Davis states that in 1803 an assassin was executed for attempting the life of the emperor, and that his sons, being of tender age, were "mercifully" strangled.

The pillory in China is a common punishment for petty offences, along with the bamboo. The law not only prescribes the number of blows, but even minutely describes the length and thickness of the instrument for each offence. Many of the laws seem designed to operate chiefly *in terrorem*, and the penalty is placed higher than the punishment

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really intended to be inflicted, that the Emperor may have scope for mercy, or, as he says, "for leniency beyond the bounds of the law."

The ritual laws of the code forbid, under heavy penalties, all illegal combinations under the guise of a new form of worship. Women are not allowed to congregate in the temples. All this is the result of the fear, on the part of the authorities, that the people might resist them if allowed to assemble for any purpose in large numbers.

The Emperor of China is an object of almost unbounded reverence. He is the fountain of all power, rank, honor, and privilege to all. He is the sole head of the Chinese constitution and government; he is regarded as the vicegerent of heaven, especially chosen to govern all nations, and is supreme in every thing, holding at once the highest legislative and executive powers without control or limit. His most common appellation in state papers is *hwangti*, or august sovereign. The term *hwangti* is used to designate "one possessing complete virtues, and able to act on heavenly principles."* His dominions are supposed, by the Chinese, to comprise all the best parts of the globe; and as there can be but one sun in the heavens, so there can be but one *hwangti* on earth, the source and dispenser of benefits to the whole world. The same absolute executive held by him is given to his deputies and governors-general, who exercise them within the limits of their jurisdiction. The Emperor is the head of religion, the source of all law and of mercy. All the forces and revenues of the empire are his. He has a right to the services of all males between 16 and 60 years of age. There are no checks upon him but public opinion, the want of a standing army, and the venality of his agents. The principal defect of the Chinese government is the want of a perfect control of the inferior agents of the empire, who, with absolute power in their hands, often use it with great severity, cruelty, and injustice. The authority of M. de Guignes, whom we cite in the note below, is very high and positive on this subject.† He speaks of what he has seen after traversing the whole empire. The penal laws of the empire are printed in a cheap form and widely diffused; and sixteen discourses are annually read to the public, by order of government, inculcating the duty of every man to make himself acquainted with the laws, and with the penalties consequent on their infraction. The police of China is vigilant and efficient; but, as a safeguard against oppression, the name of every person in any way connected with the government, is published in a sort of red book, of which a correct edition appears four times a year, in four volumes, 12mo., to which are occasionally added two others of army and navy lists.

The emperor immediately preceding the present emperor of China, was the sixth of the Tsing or pure dynasty, who has reigned in China. He was the second son of his father Kiaking. His given name had two syllables, but only one, *Mien*, is generally known, because it is the name of all in the generation to which his majesty belongs. He was born in October, 1781, and ascended the throne in September, 1821. He reigned 29 years. He had three sons; two of whom, *Yihchu* and *Yihtsung*, are now 21 years of age. He was represented as a mild, inefficient man, and the portraits of him in circulation present a countenance, indicating care and thoughtfulness, but no traces of intemperance. His physiognomy was not peculiarly Mongolian, the thin features, large nose, and small lower face, likening him a little to the Circassian.‡ His moral character had no very salient qualities. He appeared to be a man fitted for peaceful times, and not at all equal to a desperate emergency, like that now agitating China. He had lived to a good old age, only to see his dominions and his authority dreadfully convulsed and shaken by extensive and formidable revolts of his subjects. *Taukwang*, or glory of reason, was the name which the emperor, on his accession, ordered to be given to the period of his reign; and that name was regarded, by the Chinese, as his personal name while on the throne. The surname of the present reigning family is *Gioro*, or golden. They are the descendants of Kin, or golden, a people who subjugated much of northern China in the 11th and 12th

* Chinese Chrestomathy, p. 558.

† "J'ai vécu longtemps à la Chine; j'ai traversé ce vaste empire dans toute sa longuer; j'ai vu partout le fort opprimer le faible; et tout homme ayant en partage une portion d'autorité s'en servir pour vexer, molester et écraser le peuple."—*De Guignes*, vol. ii., p. 438.

‡ Williams's China, vol. i., p. 309-10.

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centuries, and were driven into Liantung by the Mongols.

Nothing is omitted which can add to the dignity and sacredness of the Emperor's person or character. Almost everything used by him is tabooed from the common people, and distinguished by some peculiar mark or color, so as to keep up the impression of awe with which he is regarded, and which is so powerful an auxiliary to his throne. Every device is employed to create the impression of awe. Dressed in a robe of yellow, the color worn, say the Chinese, by the sun, the emperor is surrounded by all the pageantry of the highest dignity in the world that Chinese ingenuity can devise. The outer gate of his palace must always be passed on foot, and the paved entrance-walk leading up to it can only be used by himself. All ranks must bow the head to his vacant throne, or even a screen of yellow silk thrown over a chair, the same as if he were actually present. In his presence no one dares speak but in a whisper, and his person is considered too sacred to be often exhibited in public. An imperial dispatch is received in the provinces with the burning of incense and with prostrations. But, with all this, his dignity does not allow him to lean back in public; to smoke; to change his dress; or in fact to indulge in the least relaxation from the fatiguing support of his imperial dignity. The celebration of his birthday is conducted in a manner, as described by Mr. Staunton, calculated to convey the awful impression of his being regarded more as a god than a man. He preserves an invisibility, as if in imitation of the Deity.* In every provincial capital there is a hall dedicated solely to the honor of the emperor, in which, three days before and after his birthday, all the most distinguished citizens do him homage, the same as if he was present.

The right of succession to the throne is by custom hereditary in the male line; but it is always in the power of the sovereign to nominate his successor, either from among his own children, or any of his subjects. The heir-apparent is not always known during the lifetime of the incumbent, though there is a titular office of guardian of the heir-apparent.

The present Emperor of China is the fourth son of the late Emperor, who died in February, 1850. He has assumed the title of *Szehing*, and was only 19 years of age when he ascended the throne.

The titular nobility of the empire, as a whole, is a body whose members are without power, lands, wealth, or influence. Some of the titles are more or less hereditary, but the whole system has been so devised, and the titles so conferred, as to tickle the vanity of those who receive them, without granting them any real power. There are twelve orders of nobility, conferred solely on the members of the imperial house and clan, all of which are to some extent hereditary. There are also several classes of the imperial princesses, whose tutelage and disposal is under the control of the empress and the court. Besides the above, there are five ancient orders of nobility, some of them the descendants of Confucius.

There are attached to the palace, a corps of 5,000 eunuchs. In 1829, a law was promulgated, ordering that the sons of a murderer who had killed all the heirs of a family, should be given to the keeper of the harem to be emasculated, as one means of replenishing the number of eunuchs of the palace. The number of females attached to the harem is unknown. All of them are under the nominal discretion of the empress. Every third year, his majesty reviews the daughters of the Manchu officers over 12 years of age, and chooses such as he pleases for concubines; there are only seven legal concubines, but an unlimited number of illegal. The latter are restored to liberty when they reach the age of 25, unless they have borne children to his majesty. It is generally considered an advantage to a family, to have a daughter in the harem, especially by the Manchus, who endeavor to rise to favor and power by this sort of back-stairs influence.† Office-seekers have in all ages, and still continue to resort to every species of available means of currying favor with the great.

The empress dowager is the most important person within the palace, and his majesty does homage to her at frequent intervals, by making the highest ceremony of nine prostrations before her.

Revenues.—The central government

* Staunton's Embassy; vol. iii., p. 66. Williams's China, vol. i., p. 314. Davis's China. Ellis's Lord Amherst's Embassy, p. 397.

† Williams' s China, vol. i., p. 318.

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of China requires each province to support itself, and furnish a certain amount for the emperor and his court; but it is well known, says Mr. Williams, that his majesty is continually embarrassed for the want of funds, and that all the provinces do not supply enough revenue to meet their own outlays. It is believed that the precious metals are at present less abundant in China, as a circulating medium, than 30 years ago. The Chinese government, as is well known, is entirely without national credit. The revenues consist principally of tithes, not paid in the nature of taxation, but as rent, the Emperor uniting the character of universal landlord with that of king and father; but though the whole population be tenants at will, ejectment is seldom resorted to, and it is his own fault if a Chinese be ever deprived of his lands. There are no great estates in China; but if one happens to hold more land than he can conveniently cultivate, he lets it to another, on condition of his receiving half the produce, out of which he pays the whole taxes. A great part of the poorer peasantry hold land in this way.*

The Emperor's rent amounts to one-tenth of all the products of the soil. The revenue is paid partly in money and partly in kind. The estimates made by different authors of the total revenues of China are exceedingly various. Dr. Medhurst, who drew his information from original sources, and who is, perhaps, as worthy of credit as any one who has written on the subject, gives the following statement of the principal items of the revenue:

Land taxes in money	Sent to Peking	$42,327,954
" " grain		12,692,871
Custom and transit duties		1,974,662
Land taxes in money	Kept in the provinces	38,273,500
" " grain		105,689,707
Annual amount		$200,958,694

According to this each person in China is taxed on an average only about 60 cents per annum. Mr. Barrow estimates the capitation at about 90 cents. The official account of the revenues for 1840, as given in the government Red Book, for all of the eighteen provinces, shows the revenue for that year to have amounted to 58,097,000 taels of $1 33c. each, equal to $77,462,666.† This, however, was only the net revenue transmitted to the government, after the expenses of collection and many local and provincial charges were deducted, after the Spanish mode of rendering a *balanza* in Cuba.

The manner in which the various items of the revenue are divided, in the provinces, may be seen from the following official statement in the Red Book for 1842, for the province of Kwangtung:

Land tax in money	1,264,304	taels.
Pawnbrokers' taxes	5,990	"
Frontier tax, and on transportation	719,307	"
Retained	339,143	"
Miscellaneous sources	59,530	"
Salt department and gabel	47,510	"
Revenue from customs at Canton	43,750	"
Other stations in the province	53,670	"
Total	2,533,204	"
Equal to	$3,377,605	

This, however, is only the amount actually sent to the imperial treasury, after deducting all charges. The real receipts, says Mr. Williams, for any province, cannot well be ascertained by foreigners; it is, however, known that in former years the collector of customs at Canton was obliged to remit annually from 800,000 to 1,300,000 taels, and the gross receipts of his office were not far from 3,000,000 of taels.‡

De Guignes, perhaps the highest authority on Chinese affairs, has examined the revenue system of the Chinese with his usual ability and caution, basing his calculations on a proclamation of Kienlung, in 1777, in which it was stated that the total income in bullion at that period was 27,967,000 taels. He gives the following statement for that year:

Income in money, as above	27,967,000	taels.
Equal revenue in kind from grain	27,967,000	"
Tax on the second crop in the southern provinces	21,800,000	"
Gabel, coal, transit duties, &c.	6,479,400	"
Customs at Canton	800,000	"
Revenue from silk, porcelain, varnish, and other manufact's	7,000,000	"
House and shop taxes, licenses, tonnage duties, &c.	4,000,000	"
Total revenue	89,713,400	"
or	$119,617,866	

The difference of about $80,000,000 between this statement and that given above by Dr. Medhurst, may be explained by considering that De Guignes' statement is for 1777, and that of Dr. Medhurst for 1838, we believe; during which period the notable increase of population might explain the increase of

* Barrow's China, p 398. De Guignes, vol. iii., p. 341. Williams's China, vol. ii., p. 100.

† Annales de la Foi, tome xvi. p. 440.

‡ The TAEL, $1 33. Chinese Commercial Guide, 2nd edition, p. 143.

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revenue. All these calculations, however, are based on approximations, the truth of which does not admit of verification. All writers agree, however, in placing the total revenue of China below that of any European government in proportion to the population. The Manchu emperors of China have never shown the desire so often manifested by nations claiming a higher civilization (Spain, for instance,) to extort as much revenue as possible from their subjects. They laid down fixed rates of taxation, from which, for a long series of years, there has been no deviation. The extraordinary sources of revenue, which are resorted to by the Chinese government in time of war or of bad harvests, are the sales of offices and honors, temporary increase of duties, and demands for contributions from wealthy merchants and landholders. The first source is the most fruitful, and is a permanent expedient resorted to for replenishing the treasury. We must also add, that the gold and silver mines and pearl fisheries of Manchuria and elsewhere, together with the precious stones from Ili, Khoten, and other sources, furnish several millions annually.

The expenditures of the Chinese government exceed the revenue almost every year; and how the deficit is supplied does not clearly appear. In 1832 the emperor announced that the excess of disbursements was 28,000,000 of taels;* and in 1836 the deficit was still greater, and offices and titles to the amount of 10,000,000 of taels were put up for sale to supply it. This deficiency in the revenue has become more and more alarming since the great drain of specie, annually sent abroad in payment for opium, has attained its present amount; and the shifts of the government to provide for its ordinary expenses have been more varied, and oftener resorted to. The principal items of the expenditure of the government, are stated by De Guignes as follows:—

Salary of the civil and military officers, a tithe of the impost on lands.	7,773,500
Pay of 60,000 infantry, 3 taels per month, half in money and half in rations....	21,600,000
Pay of 242,000 cavalry, 4 taels per mo..	11,616,000
Mounting the cavalry, 20 taels each...	4,840,000
Uniforms for both foot and horse, 4 taels each	3,368,000
Arms and ammunition.....	842,000
Navy, revenue cutters, &c.....	13,500,000
Canals, and transportation of revenue.	4,000,000
Forts, artillery, and munitions of war..	3,800,000
Total taels.....	71,339,500
or	$98,452,633

If this calculation be correct, there is an annual deficit of about 20,000,000 of taels; but the outlays for quelling insurrections and transporting troops, the deficiency from bad harvests, the defalcation of officers, payments to the tribes and princes in Mongolia and Ili, and other unusual demands, more than exceed this surplus. It is thought that a considerable amount of the revenue is made away with by fraud and peculation on the part of government officers, who, "from the injudicious system which exists of combining fiscal, legislative, and judicial functions and control in the same person," are subject to the strongest temptations to practice peculation largely.

The salaries of provincial officers are not high. The governor-generals receive 20,000 taels; lieutenant-governors, 16,000; treasurers, 9,000; provincial judges, 6,000; prefects, 3,000; district magistrates, from 800 to 2,000; literary chancellors, 3,000; commanders-in-chief, 4,000; generals, 2,400; colonels, 1,300; and gradually decreasing, according to rank, down to 130 taels per annum. No estimate can be made of the perquisites of officers. Their exactions are often considerable.

The land-tax is the principal source of revenue in the rural districts. It is from 1½ to ten cents a man, or from ten to sixty-six cents per acre, according to the quality of the land. At an average of twenty-five cents per acre, the revenue from the land-tax would be more than $150,000,000. The clerks, constables, lictors, and underlings of the courts and prisons, are the "claws" of their superiors, as the Chinese aptly call them, and perform most of their extortions. A Chinese proverb calls them "rats under the altar." Their number is very great, and the responsibility of their proceedings devolves upon their superiors. They are universally despised by the people. The officers make their exactions chiefly on the wealthy in the cities and trading places; but in the country the rich often hire bodies of retainers to defy the police, and practice robbery and extortion themselves. Like other Asiatic governments, China suffers from the consequences of bribery, peculation, extortion, and poorly-paid officers; but she has no pow-

* Chinese Repository, vol. i., p. 159.

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erful aristocracy to retain the money thus squeezed out of the people, and it soon finds its way back again into their hands.*

MONEY.—We may here introduce a few notices of the money of China. Money among the Chinese consists of taels, mace, candareens, and cash.

10 cash =1 candareen,
10 candareens=1 mace,
10 mace =1 tael,
1 tael =$1 33, according to Williams.

The coin called *cash* is of copper, and about the size of an English farthing. From 720 to 1,100 of them, according to their quality, equal a dollar. Silver is employed rather as an article of traffic than as a circulating medium; that used as money is cast into the shape of a horse's hoof, and called *tael*, being equal to a little over 6 shillings sterling, according to McCulloch. Gold is seldom used as a currency, but when it is, it comes into market beaten into thin leaves. Credit is little known except at Canton. Paper money has not an extensive circulation, it being confined to the large commercial towns, in which there are banks issuing paper. Chartered banking companies are unknown, but private bankers are found in all large towns, some of whom pay interest on money deposited on security. Paper money is no modern invention, either in China or in Europe. It was formerly issued in immense quantities under the Mongol dynasty, and its convenience is highly praised by Marco Polo. It is highly probable, says Mr. Williams, that the repudiation of paper money by the Mongol emperors, who succeeded Kublai, and the loss, in consequence, to the people when his dynasty was expelled, effectually destroyed all the credit of Chinese imperial honesty with the people. And thus, too, we see that government *repudiation* is no new thing. Repudiation and the "shin-plaster" system have all had their day long ago in China. Pawnbrokers' tickets, and promissory notes circulate a little in China among the people; bills of exchange are common, drawn by one broker upon another in favor of the bearer in any part of the empire, affording a convenient remittance to merchants and an accommodation to travelers. Pawnbroking is a large business in China, and is usually connected with banking.

The coin called *cash* is the only native coin now current. The other three are nominal. It is thin and circular, about ¾ of an inch in diameter, and has a square hole in the middle for stringing them. On one side is the name of the reigning monarch and dynasty; on the other the words, *Tan-kwang tung pan*, i. e., Tan-kwang's current money. Mints for coining *cash* are established in each provincial capital, under the direction of the board of revenue. The coin should consist of pure copper, but it is so mixed with sand, iron filings, and tutenague, an alloy of copper, zinc, and nickel, that it is one of the basest coins found in any country. In spite of all government efforts to prevent it, private coinage is issued to a great amount, and sometimes with the connivance of the mint master. The genuine coin is now so debased that counterfeiters find it an unprofitable business to imitate it; and this is the chief security the government has for retaining it in its hands. The impossibility of preventing counterfeiting is the reason why the Chinese have no silver currency.

Spanish and South American dollars are in general use along the coasts; but they are soon reduced to bullion. The counterfeiting of bullion, too, is extensive, as also that of dollars. The Chinese have a printed counterfeit detector, like Sylvester's, giving an account of the process of manufacturing each variety of false money, describing its appearance, and rules for detecting the forgery.†

In the city of Fuhchan, private banking, unrestrained by any of our checks of civilization, is carried on very extensively. The leading commercial firms issue "shin-plasters," varying in value from 40 cents to $1000. The blue, red, and black colors, blended together on them, present a gay appearance of signatures and indorsings. They bear the name of the issuing house, and a number of characters traced around the edges in bright blue ink. The date, and some ingeniously wrought cyphers for the reception of signatures and the prevention of forgeries, are of a deep red; while the entry of the sum, and the names of the partners and receiver, stand forth in large

* Williams's China, vol. i., pp. 234—239.

† Williams's China, vol. ii., p. 156—7.

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black characters. On the back are the indorsements of various individuals who have received the bill.*

PRODUCTIVE INDUSTRY.—The industry of the Chinese is proverbial. Every foot of the soil is tilled, except where the lands require draining, an operation which the Chinese do not practice, and hence vast tracts of land lie uncultivated, in spite of the dense population. Agriculture holds the first place in their estimation, and hence the high honors paid to it by the emperor, in holding the plow publicly once a year. All of the instruments of the Chinese, whether of agriculture or of the arts, are extremely rude, and of the most primitive character. Centuries have passed by without their making the slightest improvement either in their utensils or in the arts. Progress is a thing unknown to them; and indeed the very letter and spirit of their laws forbid it. It is a great misfortune of the Chinese that they believe themselves arrived at perfection. With instruments so rude, it is astonishing that they are still enabled to produce so many exquisitely wrought productions; but their patience and enduring industry make up for the deficiency in their tools and their lack of science. A subdivision of labor always leads to greater perfection in the arts; but owing to the smallness of their farms there is no room for the subdivision of employments. They spare no pains in the collection and preparation of manure, and they are superior to every other people in the irrigation of lands. By means of rude chain-pumps they draw water from the canals and rivers; whilst the highest mountains are cut into terraces so constructed as to retain the requisite quantity of water, and to allow what is superfluous to pass off. By these means and manuring they produce two crops a year without intermission. But notwithstanding their remarkable industry and economy, the bulk of the population have usually so little to spare, and are so completely without the ability to retrench in times of distress, or to resort to a less expensive species of food, that the failure of a crop always involves them in the extremity of want; and notwithstanding the supplies brought from other parts of the country, the famine produced is so great that all sorts of outrages on one another are committed to save life, and vast numbers die of hunger.

The Chinese are rather gardeners, says Mr. Williams, than farmers, not only in the small size of their grounds, but in their ignorance of those operations whereby soils naturally unfruitful are made fertile. Scientific agriculture is unknown to them.

The annual ceremony of plowing is of very ancient origin in China. At Peking it consists in plowing a sacred field with a highly ornamented plow, kept for the purpose, the emperor holding it while turning over three furrows, the princes five, and the high ministers nine. These furrows were, however, so short, that the monarchs of the present dynasty altered the ancient rule, plowing four furrows and returning again over the ground. The ceremony finished, the emperor and his ministers repair to the terrace, and there remain till the whole field has been plowed. The ground belongs to the temples of Heaven and Earth, on the south of the city, and the crop of wheat raised in the sacred field is used in idolatrous services. The rank of the actors renders the ceremony more imposing at Peking, and the people of the capital make more of it than they do in the provinces. A monstrous clay image of a cow is carried to the spot, containing or accompanied by hundreds of little similar images. After the field is plowed the image of the cow is broken up, and the pieces and small images are carried off by the crowd to scatter the power on their own fields, in the hope of thereby securing a good crop. The heads of the provincial governments, the prefects and district magistrates go through a similar ceremony on the same day, all engaging in a solemn worship of a clay image of a buffalo and an idol of a cowherd. In the temples, also, the "fathers of the people" recite prayers, and make a series of prostrations with deep reverence.†

The Chinese have ever been highly distinguished for their manufactures. The fabric of porcelain originated with them exclusively. The porcelain manufactures of Kingtehchin were established in A. D. 1004, and now furnish all the fine porcelain used in China and exported. Upwards of 1,000,000 of workmen

* Smith's China, p. 364.

† Williams's China, vol. ii., p. 108–9. La Chine Ouverte, p. 345-6. Chinese Repository, vols. ii., iii. and v.

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are said to be employed at that place in its manufacture. The exportation of porcelain ware from China is very ancient. Chinese snuff bottles have been found in the tombs of Egypt, containing quotations from a Chinese poet of the 12th century, showing that there was communication between China and Egypt in the 10th or 11th centuries, before China was known to Europeans. Rosellini states that he found a Chinese snuff bottle in a little palm-leaf basket,* with other objects of Egyptian manufacture, in a tomb whose date he places between 1800 B. C. and 1100 B. C. The date of their being deposited in the tombs is a question.

The lacquered ware of China, though inferior to that of Japan, is very beautiful; but it is in the minute arts of carving and inlaying that the Chinese excel. The art of spinning and weaving was derived from China. Paper is the invention of the Chinese; also gunpowder, and the mariner's compass. The manufacture of silk is original among the Chinese. They ascribe the art of manufacturing it to Yuenfi, wife of the Emperor Hwangti, B. C. 2602. The Chinese, says De Guignes, attribute, like all other ancient nations, the invention of spinning to females.

The Chinese invented paper in the first century after Christ. They manufacture it from a variety of substances. That kind of Chinese paper known by us as *rice* paper, is manufactured from the pith of a plant allied to the Artocarpus or bread-fruit. The pith is carefully taken out and cut into sheets. In the arts of metallurgy the Chinese enjoy only a mediocrity. The manufacture of glass is carried on chiefly at Canton, and the gradual increase in its use for windows, tumblers, lamps, &c., shows that the Chinese are quite willing to borrow whatever they discover useful, even from the outside barbarians. Looking-glasses are gradually taking the place of their metallic mirrors. The cutting and setting of hard precious stones is carried on to some extent. Lenses for spectacles they cut from quartz crystals. The Chinese excel in embroidery. Leather and its various manufactures are not so extensively used by them. Their leather is poor, and the entire consumption of it is small. Morocco, buckskin and chamois leather are unknown to them. Furs and skins are dressed by them very soft for garments. The only woolen fabrics made by the Chinese, are felt for the soles of shoes and winter hats, and a sort of rug or carpet. The art of knitting is unknown. In carving the Chinese excel. Fans, card-cases, and a hundred other things are carved in wood, ivory and mother-of-pearl, in alto relievo, with wonderful skill and elaborateness.

The Chinese are not unwilling to adopt foreign improvements. They have introduced three new manufactures during the present century, that of glass, bronze and Prussian blue; also watches and clocks; and a few ships on the European plan have been built. The opium war learned them to make brass cannon.

The art of printing has undergone little improvement in China. The pages of books are engraved upon blocks of wood, of the pear or plum tree. The blocks are about three-quarters of an inch thick, and planed for cutting on both sides. Two pages are usually cut on a side, with a heavy double line surrounding them. The title of the work, chapter and page are cut between the pages. Marginal notes are placed at the top of the pages. Comments, when greatly extended, occupy the upper part, separated from the text by a heavy line. Scholia are interlined in the same column as the text, in characters of half the size. Sometimes two works are printed together, one running through the volume on the upper half of the leaves, and separated from the lower half by heavy lines.

The mode of working the blocks ready for the press, is as follows: The pages are first written out on thin paper, and then pasted upon the block face downwards. When the paper is perfectly dry on the block, it is carefully rubbed off with the wetted finger, leaving every character plainly delineated upon the block. The cutter then, with his chisels, cuts away all the blank spots in and around the characters, to the depth of a line or more, after which the block is ready for the printer.

Books in China are very cheap. The poorest can have them. Books of all sizes are printed, from 32mos. up to quartos, 14 inches square. A volume seldom contains more than 100 leaves, printed on one side.

* His words are: "Ayant penétré dans un de ces trois tombeaux, j'y ai trouvé dans un petit panier tissu de feuilles de palmier," &c.

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The prices of books vary. A volume of 30 pages is sometimes afforded for one cent. The *San Kwoh Chi*, or History of the Three States, in 24 volumes, 12mo., printed on white paper, is usually sold for 75 cents or $1. Kanghi's Dictionary, in 21 volumes 8vo., on yellow paper, sells for $4; and all the nine Chinese classics can be bought for less than $2. Books are hawked about the streets, circulating libraries are carried from house to house, upon movable stands, and the shops of booksellers are frequent in large towns.*

TRADE OF CHINA.—The trade of China is for the most part internal, the country supplying most articles necessary for the subsistence or luxury of its inhabitants. The mode of trade is that of barter chiefly, owing to the nature of the circulating medium. Salt is an article of the most extensive trade. The English embassy found at Tiensing piles of it, which contained 600,000,000 lbs. The foreign trade of China is subject to troublesome restrictions, and is chiefly confined to the English and Americans. The principal items of export and import have not materially changed during the last century. The chief articles imported, are opium, rice, raw cotton, long-cloths, domestics and sheetings, ginseng, tin, lead, iron in bars, rods and hoops, and woolen goods. Other articles imported, are betel-nuts, edible birds'-nests, lignum vitæ, ivory, pepper, steel, tin, and wax. Calicoes and chintzes are also imported.

The chief exports are tea and silk, with the former of which China supplies the whole world. The foreign consumption of tea is estimated by Mr. Williams as follows:

England	58,000,000	of pounds.
United States	18,000,000†	"
Netherlands	2,000,000	"
Russia	5,000,000	"
Germany	3,000,000	"
New South Wales	4,000,000	"
Spain, France and elsewhere	3,000,000	"
Total	93,000,000	"

China alone is estimated to consume annually 700,000,000 of pounds; but this, says Mr. Williams, is a mere guess. McCulloch estimates the average annual consumption of the whole world at about 60,000,000 of pounds.

The chief imports from China into the United States are tea, silks, nankeens, chinaware, &c. Our exports to China are furs, ginseng, raw cotton and cotton goods, specie, &c. Our trade with China began in 1784; and though it has been rather stationary since 1836, we may from this time onward look for a rapid increase of our trade with that vast empire. Our route to China is now by the way of California, as well as by the Cape of Good Hope. With even our present facilities of reaching the Pacific by Panama, our trade with the eastern shores of Asia must rapidly increase: but the opening of the Tehuantepec route—which our government is bound in honor to effect, by enforcing the obligations of Mexico—would render the transit to China complete, and soon double our trade with that country. We trust that our Tehuantepec Company are not entirely discouraged and asleep on this subject, but that the energies of the forthcoming Pierce administration will be aroused by them, aided by all the South, and be brought to bear forcibly and definitively on the subject. The honor of the country requires that Mexico should be *made* to abide by her engagements; and we have only to insist upon it to effect it.

Our trade with China since 1836 as given in De Bow's Industrial Resources,‡ has been as follows:

Years.	Exports.	Imports.
1836	$1,194,264	$7,324,816
1837	630,591	8,965,337
1838	1,516,602	4,764,536
1839	1,533,601	3,678,509
1840	1,009,966	6,640,829
1841	1,260,816	3,985,388
1842	1,444,397	4,934,645
1843	2,418,958	4,385,566
1844	1,756,941	4,931,255
1845	2,275,995	7,285,914
1846◊	1,331.741	6,593,881
1847	1,832,884	5,583,343
1848	2,190,013	8,083,496
1849	1,583,224	5,513,785
1850	1,605,217	6,593,462
1851	2,485,287	7,065,144
1852	(Returns not published.)	

Our trade with China has suffered only one temporary interruption of peaceful relations since its commencement in 1784—that of 1821, when Terranora, a sailor on board of the American ship Emily, was judicially murdered by the Chinese magistrate Pwanyu, contrary to the forms of Chinese law. The American merchants at Whampoa protested

* Williams's China, vol. i., pp. 477-479.

† In 1845 we imported 20,752,558 lbs.; in 1846, 16,676,894 lbs. (See De Bow's Industrial Resources, vol. i., p. 324.)

‡ Vol. i., p. 324.

◊ Since 1846 our figures are from the public documents U. S.

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against the proceedings, but without effect. The prisoner was strangled without a legal trial. It is very remarkable, that our "government, at Washington, never made the least move or remonstrance respecting this tragical affair, but still left the commerce, lives and property of American citizens in China wholly unprotected, and at the mercy of its rulers."*

Not until the mission of Mr. Cushing to China, after a lapse of 60 years, had our government any official dealings with that of Peking. Our consuls at Canton were merely merchants, having no salary from our government, no funds to employ interpreters, when necessary, or any power over their countrymen; and they came and went without the least notice or acknowledgment from the Chinese.

On the announcement of the treaty of Nanking, which terminated the opium war, our government deemed it a favorable moment for attempting official diplomatic intercourse with China; and accordingly President Tyler dispatched the Hon. Caleb Cushing, as commissioner and envoy extraordinary on behalf of the United States, with an autograph letter to the emperor. Some obstacles were thrown in the way of his delivering the letter to his imperial majesty in person; but nevertheless he was received in a friendly manner by the imperial commissioner, Kiying, who was invested with extraordinary powers for the occasion. The treaty concluded embodied all the important stipulations of the two English treaties, and allowed us the entrance of the five trading ports, Shang-hai, Ning-po, Fou-tcheou, Amoy and Canton, on complying with the rules established by the Chinese government for the regulation of commerce. American citizens are also allowed by the treaty to construct, in the five ports, dwellings, store-houses, churches, cemeteries and hospitals; also freely to employ teachers and other literary assistance, and to purchase books in China. It was also stipulated that subjects of China and of the United States, guilty of any crime towards each other, should be tried by the laws of their respective governments. An American criminal in China is therefore only to be tried by the American consul, or other public functionary of the United States, authorized for the purpose. It was also stipulated that all questions of right of property, between Americans in China, should be subject to our laws, and that China should not interfere in any questions arising between our citizens and those of other nations not Chinese. We are also allowed to apprehend in the Chinese territory all mutineers or deserters from American vessels; while, on the other hand, we are to deliver up all Chinese criminals when demanded by Chinese authorities. The treaty of Mr. Cushing, called the treaty of Wanghai, is to remain in force 12 years, or longer, at the option of the two governments.

There are no very accurate data upon which to estimate the entire foreign trade of China, but it is believed to amount to about $100,000,000. According to McCulloch the trade of England alone with China, in 1838, amounted to £11,700,040 sterling.

The great and most important of all the imports into China, as regards value, is opium, although it is prohibited by the government. In 1836, before the opium war, the quantity imported had risen to 26,018 chests, worth $17,106,903, which is probably the largest sum given for any raw article, by any one nation to another, if we except raw cotton furnished to Great Britain by the United States. Since the opium war the importation of the article has been greater than before. The smuggling of it is reduced to a regular system, and carried on to a very great extent. The importation is still forbidden, under penalty of death; but the law on the subject is a dead letter. Opium is allowed to be raised in the provinces of China; and the efforts of the government to prevent its importation are very feeble. Public opinion in China is in favor of the legalization of the trade. Before the opium war the question of legalizing the trade was discussed by the government, petitions having been presented for its legalization. The government hesitated at first, but finally, in consideration of the enormous evils resulting to the inhabitants from the use of the drug, the emperor resolved to make one more final effort to suppress the trade. Commissioner Lin was made the instrument for effecting the suppression. He ordered that all opium then on shore or in ships on the coast be immediately deli-

* Williams's China, vol. ii., p. 457.

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vered up, at the same time forcibly detaining Capt. Elliott, "chief superintendent of the trade of British subjects in China," together with all the merchants of foreign countries. The orders of Lin were, at first, but partially complied with, but, finally, an order to Capt. Elliott, detained, had the desired effect. He immediately enjoined and required all of her majesty's subjects at Canton "forthwith to make a surrender to him of all the opium under their respective control, to be delivered over to the government of China," promising indemnity by the British government. Such was the substance of his circular, issued at Canton on the 27th of March, 1839. The immediate effect was the surrender of 20,291 chests, all foreigners being detained until the whole was delivered. The opium was on board of 22 vessels, and Commissioner Lin superintended the delivery in person. The market value of the opium, at the time, was about $9,000,000, and the cost price nearly $11,000,000. Most of the foreign merchants of all nations signed a pledge, "not to deal in opium, nor to attempt to introduce it into the Chinese empire;" and the captains of most vessels signed a bond, demanded by Lin, not to bring in any more opium. Both the pledge and bond, however, were almost immediately violated, and the trade clandestinely renewed.

To stop the sale and use among the people Lin resorted to the most violent measures. He executed several persons purposely before the factories, in order to strike terror both to foreigners and Chinese. An order from the emperor to destroy the opium delivered up was most thoroughly executed, not a particle of it being allowed to be purloined. A man was summarily executed for attempting to carry off only a small quantity.

Commissioner Lin finding that, even whilst he was destroying the opium, the English and others had commenced the sale again, attempted to drive the ships from the coast by forbidding the inhabitants to supply them with provisions. This led to the first collision. Captain Elliott, seeing his boats stopped which he had sent on shore for provisions, fired the first gun in attack upon three junks that refused to convey to Lin his request for provisions except verbally. No great damage was done. The Chinese now attacked all vessels on the coast. Opium, however, still continued to be sold, the Hong merchants, prefects and other officers aiding in all possible ways. Seeing that it could not be stopped, even commissioner Lin entered into an agreement with Capt. Elliott for continuing the trade. Capt. Elliott had given security for its being carried on fairly, and the commissioner himself had signed the agreement. But all the negotiations were suddenly ruptured by the unauthorized entrance of one of the English ships whose captain had signed the bond not to return to the trade. Coercive measures were now taken again against the English families at Macao; and Capt. Elliott having proceeded thither to request a withdrawal of the threats of the Chinese, an engagement ensued between two of the British ships and Admiral Kwan with a fleet of sixteen junks. The junks were all either sunk, blown up, or scattered. Immediately after this, on the 6th of December, 1839, Lin declared all trade with the English at an end.

Such was the commencement of the opium war, in which the Chinese were clearly in the right, since they had just the same right to prohibit the importation of opium into China as any other nation to prohibit an article; nor were they too severe on the English for violating the laws of their empire, and encouraging the citizens to violate them.

The English, however, did not view the matter in this light; and the only question that now arose with them was, How shall we get our pay for the lost opium? Capt. Elliott very naturally suggested that the Chinese should be made to pay for it. The debate upon the subject in the British Parliament turned almost entirely upon the importance of the opium trade, leaving the wrong of the thing entirely out of the question. The majority were in favor of letting the war go on, simply because it was begun. Sir James Graham asserted that the governors of Canton had sanctioned the trade in opium; Sir George Staunton, that it would not be safe for British power in India if these insults were not checked, and that the Chinese had far exceeded in their recent efforts the previous acknowledged laws of the land. Dr. Lushington maintained that the connivance of the local rulers acquitted the smugglers; while Sir John Hobhouse,

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like an honest man, truly stated that the reason why the government had done nothing to stop the opium trade, was that it was profitable! Lord Melbourne, with equal fairness, said, "We possess immense territories peculiarly fitted for raising opium; and though he would wish that the government were not so directly concerned in the traffic, he was not prepared to pledge himself to relinquish it!" The Duke of Wellington thought the Chinese government was insincere in its efforts, and therefore deserved little sympathy; and finally, Lord Ellenborough spoke of the million and a-half sterling revenue "derived from foreigners," which, if the opium monopoly was given up, and its cultivation abandoned, they must seek elsewhere. No one advocated the war solely on the ground that the opium had been seized.*

The opium war and the entire proceedings of the British government on the subject furnish a pitiful illustration of the influence of mere gain over the minds of even the most civilized and Christian nations. Here we see England, with all its boasted civilization and Christianity, striving to thwart the efforts of a semi-barbarous and pagan nation to save its people from the destructive effects of a deadly drug—striving to fasten upon the Chinese a trade in opium which England, better than any other nation, knows to be the destroyer of thousands of Chinese annually! Is it a wonder that the orientals deride Christianity, and prefer the teachings of Confucius to those of the New-Testament?

A pretext being wanting for carrying on the war, the English were not long in finding one. Lord John Russell finally succeeded in concocting the following: He said the war was "set afoot to obtain reparation for insults and injuries offered her majesty's superintendent and subjects; to obtain indemnification for the losses the merchants had sustained under threats of violence; and lastly, to get security that persons and property trading with China should in future be protected from insult and injury, and trade maintained upon a proper footing." If he had told the truth, which these great Lord John Russells do not always do, he would have said, that the English brought the insults of the Chinese upon themselves by openly violating the laws of China, and encouraging the Chinese citizens to do the same; and that the war was caused by an attempt to continue in the same course of conduct towards China, after repeated orders to desist, and respect the laws of the country. In seeking for a pretext to carry on the war, every principle of law, justice, decency and Christianity was laid aside. The English knew that the opium trade was a wicked and systematic violation of Chinese laws. The world saw a Pagan monarch, on the one hand, endeavoring to put down a vice destructive of the morals and lives of his subjects; and on the other, a powerful nation of *Christians*, determined to thwart all his virtuous endeavors, even at the cost of blood, and the vast expenses of a powerful naval and land force! The war was the direct offspring of British iniquity, and the English acted upon the principle which all nations are too apt to act upon, when gain is their object, that "might makes right." The opium trade was profitable, as Sir John Hobhouse said; and the Duke of Wellington, who thought that the Chinese deserved no sympathy in their endeavors to put down a vice, very well knew that the burning of a little gunpowder and the murdering of a few thousand Chinese, would render the trade permanent. It was therefore suffered to go on, the principles of Christianity to the contrary notwithstanding. Queen Victoria, who probably never understood the real merits of the case, made no formal declaration of war against China, but authorized the war to go on by an order in council to the Admiralty, in which it was recited that "satisfaction and reparation for the late injurious proceedings of certain officers of the Emperor of China against certain of our officers and subjects shall be demanded from the Chinese government." She had heard nothing but the shameful misrepresentations of the whole conduct of the Chinese government in the matter, and acted accordingly. China had only attempted to enforce a wholesome law, while England was resolved that it should not be enforced, because it would put an end to their money-making trade in opium.

In vain did Commissioner Lin write two letters to Queen Victoria, asking her Christian aid in putting down the opium trade. The only reply he received was

* Williams's China, vol. ii. p. 526.

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the arrival, in 1840, of the ship Ariel at Canton, announcing the determination of the British government to appeal to arms in case the emperor refused to settle the difficulties without bloodshed. The Chinese immediately began to prepare for the coming storm. They repaired their ships and forts, and guarded the coasts.

The advance of the English forces under Sir G. Brewer, arrived at Macao on the 22d June, 1841, and commenced the blockade of Canton. On the 4th of July, he moved northward to the harbor of Tinghai, a city whose people, whatever wrongs those of Canton had committed towards the English, were entirely guiltless, and demanded its surrender. The brave inhabitants declared that they would do their best to defend themselves, and on Sunday, the 5th of July, the broadsides of all the English vessels were opened upon the town. The English landed 3000 troops, who took a position commanding the town. The walls of the city were seen filled with Chinese troops. Shot and shell were poured in upon them in a heartless manner until night closed the operations of war. The next morning the place was found evacuated during the night, and possession was taken without resistance. The slaughter of the Chinese had been considerable, and many of the principal Chinese officers were killed. Gen. Burrell was appointed governor of the city.

Amoy and Ningpo were next blockaded, after the refusal of the authorities of those cities to send a copy of Lord Palmerston's letter, setting forth the grounds of complaint, to Peking. The letter was finally delivered to Kishen, the governor-general of the province of Chehkiang, at Taku, where the two English plenipotentiaries, Admiral G. Elliott and Captain Elliott had an interview with him. He promised to lay the letter before the emperor, but delayed; the English threatened him, but he finally agreed to meet them at Canton. During these negotiations at Taku, the English were prowling about the coasts in quest of food, which they found it hard to procure, as no Chinaman was allowed under pain of death to supply them. Some skirmishing took place in different parts, and several prisoners fell into the hands of the Chinese at Ningpo, among whom were the crew of a vessel lost at the mouth of the Tsientang river. The prisoners were all carried to Ningpo in small cages, according to the usual practice of the Chinese.

Large rewards were offered by Lin for the capture of English ships and people; his efforts, however, did not please the emperor, who ordered him to Peking and severely reprimanded him, declaring that he had done more harm than good.

They were dreadfully afflicted with sickness and death. Among the troops stationed at Tinghai over 400 of the 4,000 died within three months after their arrival, and three times that number were in the hospitals. This induced Admiral Elliott to make a truce. Admiral Elliott, in consequence of ill health, was obliged to resign his office as plenipotentiary and return home, leaving the management of affairs to Captain Elliott, who renewed negotiations at Canton, in Dec., 1841, but found the Chinese determined to resist all demands for indemnity. Kishen, who had taken the place of Lin, refused to cede the isle of Hongkong, and negotiations were broken off. The English then immediately made an attack upon the forts at Cheunpi and Taikokton, but their progress was suspended by Kishen proposing an armistice. He had become alarmed and re-opened negotiations, at the same time memorializing the emperor, stating the ineffectiveness of the defences. Kishen went so far as to arrange a treaty with Captain Elliott, making important cessions and indemnities to the English; but Lin and his colleagues memorialized the emperor against Kishen and his peaceful measures; and the treaty never reached Peking. The emperor was determined on war; and on the 27th of Jan., 1842, he ordered it to be resumed, "in order to destroy and wipe clean away, to exterminate and root out the rebellious barbarians." He put all his defences in the best condition, and offered a reward of $50,000 for Elliott, Brewer, Morrison and other ringleaders.

On the 26th of Jan., the English made an attack on the Bogue forts with nine ships, two steamers, and 500 troops. They were defended by more than 3,000 Chinese. The forts were taken and blown up. The Chinese lost 1,000 men. The next day the English attacked a fortification and entrenched camp of 2,000 Chinese on the river, who had mounted upwards of 100 cannon. The ships and

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steamers opened a hot fire upon the camp, and together with the land forces made a terrible slaughter of them. The Chinese fought bravely, but were soon overcome with a loss of 500 men, their camp, and everything. By means of their steamers the English easily destroyed an immense raft constructed across the river to prevent their approach to Canton, which was only five miles above. Seeing the loss of this, the Chinese sent a flag of truce proposing a suspension of hostilities for three days.

At the end of the three days hostilities were renewed by an advance upon Canton, the British forces being now reinforced by the arrival of Maj. Gen. Sir Hugh Gough, from India, to take command of the land forces. The Chinese, seeing the city at the mercy of the English, proposed on the 20th of March another truce, by which trade was allowed to go on. During this truce, which lasted about six weeks, the Chinese made active preparations for defence, and on the 21st of May they attacked the ships of the English by land and water, but did little damage. The English, in turn, destroyed their junks, fireboats and batteries in every direction. On the 24th of May the English invested the city, seizing the factories and attacking the forts and camps behind the city. On the 26th they made preparations to burn the city, but a heavy rain prevented them, and they deferred the attempt till the next day. In the mean time the city offered to surrender; and soon after, on the same day, a messenger arrived from Capt. Elliott desiring all operations to cease till he could conclude negotiations, which he had commenced, for the surrender. The terms agreed upon were that a ransom of $6,000,000 should be paid, and the Chinese evacuate the city and march 60 miles from it, besides paying for the loss of all property. Before evacuating the city some lawless Chinese troops undertook to plunder the inhabitants. A terrible conflict with the citizens ensued, and more than 1,000 persons were killed in the streets. The taking of Canton cost the English 14 killed, 112 wounded, and about 300 from fever. The Chinese lost about 5,000 men, and 1,200 cannon. The trade at Canton went on, after the surrender, without interruption during the war, the usual duties and charges being paid as in time of peace.

Six men of war and about 500 troops being left at Canton and Hongkong to enforce the truce, the rest of the English forces under Admiral Parker and Sir Hugh Gough, consisting of two 74's and seven ships, four steamers, 23 transports, and two other vessels, with about 3,500 troops, proceeded to the north, and attacked the city of Amoy, on the 25th of Aug., 1842. On the 27th the city was taken without much loss of life on either side. All the public stores were destroyed. The city was completely pillaged by native robbers after the Chinese troops retreated. All the Chinese junks were destroyed.

The English next left for Chusan, where they attacked the city of Tinghai, and soon subdued the whole island, the Chinese losing 1,000 men. A military government was appointed over the island, and 400 men left to protect it. The English next proceeded to Chinhoi, which they attacked on the 10th of Oct. The town was bombarded and taken. The Chinese lost 1,500 men, and the governor Yukien committed suicide to escape the displeasure of the emperor. An immense amount of public stores was taken. Ningpo was next taken without resistance, on the 13th. The English found in the city $170,000, many tons of copper coin in the mint, and vast quantities of rice, silk, and porcelain. The English intended at first to burn the city, but finally concluded to make it their winter quarters.

All these losses in such rapid succession did not discourage the emperor. He prepared for new efforts. Lin, who had been banished to Ili, as also Ilipu and Kishen, who had been condemned to death for attempting to make a treaty with the English, were all taken into favor and consulted as to future movements. New defences were made to guard Peking and the city of Hongehou, a place of great wealth. The Chinese re-opened the campaign by an attack on Ningpo. They were, as usual, defeated with great loss. The musketry and chain-shot poured upon them by the English, "choked up the streets with their dead bodies."* The English next attacked an entrenched camp near Tsz'ki. They fell upon it on three sides simultaneously with great slaughter. Indeed, the English made a barbarous and

* Williams's China, vol. ii., p. 549.

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"unmanly slaughter of their flying enemy," pursuing them several miles. The Chinese lost 1,000 men killed, and the number of wounded must have been great. The English lost 6 killed and 37 wounded. The English remained over night in the taken camp, and destroyed it the next morning.

The next place attacked by the English was Chapu, a strongly fortified city about 40 miles above Chinhai, and a place of great trade. The Chinese fled on their approach. The city and all its defences were an easy prey. The loss of life was terrible. Those who could not escape killed themselves. Fifteen hundred were slain. Some were burned to death who had taken refuge in a temple which was set on fire. Great numbers destroyed themselves, after cutting the throats of their wives and children. The houses were found full of the dead and dying. Young children were found attending upon their aged or infirm parents, awaiting in dread suspense the approach of the English, from whom they expected little less than instant destruction.

The English next proceeded northward to the mouth of the Yangtsz'kiang and Wusung rivers, and attacked the extensive forts which defended the entrances of those rivers. These forts mounted 175 guns, and contained a strong force. After a cannonading on both sides of two hours the English entered the forts sword in hand. The Chinese fought with desperation and died at their posts. About 100 were killed. The fortifications, stores, and everything were destroyed.

The English next marched on the city of Shanghai, which they took without opposition. A ransom of $300,000 was exacted, and every thing of value was seized. The rice found in the public granaries was distributed among the people, which they had also done in several other cities. Three hundred and eighty-eight cannons were taken. Shanghai was taken on the 19th of June, 1842.

On the 23d the English left Shanghai, and proceeded up the Yangtsz'kiang, to attack the city of Chinkiang-fu, at the junction of the Grand Canal and the river. A large reinforcement, under Sir H. Pottinger and Lord Saltoun, joined the expedition on the 22d. The advance up the river greatly alarmed the emperor. The expedition now consisted of ships, steamers, and transports, in all seventy-two, most of them large vessels. The sight of such a force proceeding into the country filled the inhabitants with astonishment and dread. Before starting, Pottinger issued a proclamation to the people, entirely misrepresenting the cause of the war, and making complaints of the government, charging it with duplicity and treachery, and declaring that Lin had imprisoned the English at Canton, in the commencement of the war, merely to extort opium, and not to suppress the trade. The whole proclamation was a violation of truth, and a disgrace to the English nation. It concluded by saying that peace would not be made until cessions of territory, compensation for losses, and open and equal intercourse between the two nations were granted. The real causes of the war were not stated. The emperor also issued a proclamation about the same time, in which he gave the true version of the case, and exhorted his subjects to renewed efforts.

Some batteries were destroyed by the English, as they proceeded up the river, and they finally arrived at Chinkiang-fu on the 20th of July. The city is on the canal, and is surrounded by a high and solid wall four miles in circuit. The English forces, consisting of 7,000 men, and a brigade of artillery, attacked the city in three divisions. The Chinese, to the number of 3,000, were encamped behind the city. Within its walls there were from 2,600 to 2,800 troops. The English entered the city by scaling the walls with ladders, and by blowing up the gateways. A most terrible slaughter ensued. There was desolation and woe on all sides. The streets and houses were filled with the dead, the Chinese killing themselves, wives, and children, rather than fall into the hands of the English. The Tartars threw their wives and children into wells. The destruction of life was frightful. Out of a population of 4,000 not more than 500 survived. Truly a Christian means of opening China and securing the opium trade! The public offices were ransacked, and all the arms and warlike stores destroyed. As in all the cities which the English had taken, the populace plundered the city and suburbs in every direction. In twenty-four hours after the English landed, the city and suburbs of Chinkiang-fu were a mass of

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ruin and complete destruction. Part of the eastern wall was blown down, and all the gates dismantled. The English lost 37 killed and 130 wounded. The English next proceeded up the river to Nanking, which city they reached on the 9th of August, 1842. To avoid a repetition of the horrid scenes of Chinkiang-fu, after making preparations for an assault, the English sent a communication to Nin Kien, the governor, stating that they would ransom the city for $3,000,000! In what other light can we regard these invaders than as public robbers and murderers? Because the Chinese wished to prevent traffic in a vile drug that ruined the morals of the people, and destroyed the lives of thousands annually, the English made war upon them, murdered them by thousands, plundered them of their goods, and extorted from them at the point of the bayonet millions of dollars!

To hasten the delivery of this enormous amount of ransom money, these open robbers of nations made every demonstration of an immediate attack. The Chinese, knowing the dreadful consequences of a non-compliance with the demands of the English, opened negotiations with Sir Henry Pottinger on the 14th of August. The city of Yangchou had already sent half a million of dollars to the invaders, as the ransom of that place. A treaty was easily negotiated by the English, entirely on their own terms, for they had only to dictate. It was signed on board of the English flag-ship Cornwallis on the 29th of August, 1842, and sent the same day to Peking for the emperor's ratification. The articles of the treaty were:—1. Lasting peace between the two empires. 2. The Chinese government to pay $21,000,000 by the end of 1845, twelve being for the expenses of the war, three for debts due the English merchants, and six for the opium. 3. The ports of Canton, Amoy, Fuhchan, Ningpo, and Shanghai, to be thrown open to British trade and residence, and trade conducted according to a well-understood tariff. 4. The Island of Hong-Kong to be ceded to the queen of England. 5. All British prisoners to be unconditionally released. 6. All Chinese in the service of the English to be pardoned and held guiltless. 7. Correspondence hereafter to be conducted on terms of perfect equality. 8. When the treaty receives the emperor's assent, and six millions of dollars are paid, the English forces shall withdraw from the river (Yangtsz'kiang) and the places now occupied; but Chusan and Kulang-su to be retained till all the provisions of the treaty are completed.

The $6,000,000 were paid without much delay, and on the 15th of September the emperor's ratification was received.

Thus ended the opium war, than which a more iniquitous one never disgraced the annals of any nation. It cost the poor Chinese some ten thousand lives, and "woes unnumbered;" while the entire loss of life on the part of the English, from war and sickness, must have been about 4,000. Most of the English officers of the army and navy, engaged in the war, received promotion or honorary titles for their skill in slaughtering the Chinese. Sir Hugh Gough was made a baronet, and after more service in India, of a like character, elevated to the peerage, with the title of Lord Gough, Baron of Chinkiang-fu! What a train of bloody scenes and distress—the cries of the slaughtered innocent women and children—the terror of the old and decrepit—must the name of Chinkiang-fu bring up in the mind of this proud English baron! Methinks he would have preferred some other name.*

TEA TRADE WITH CHINA.—The Hong-kong "China Mail" of the 9th of September has the following table, showing the extent of the tea trade of China with the United States during the last eight years:

Year ending June 30.	Green. Pounds.	Black. Pounds.	Total Pounds.
1845	13,812,099	6,950,459	20,762,558
1846	14,236,082	4,266,166	18,502,265
1847	13,853,132	4,318,496	18,171,628
1848	16,345,030	3,993,617	19,338,640
1849	13,818,700	4,853,600	18,672,300
1850	14,386,400	7,361,400	21,757,800
1851	15,215,700	13,545,100	28,760,800
1852	20,937,300	13,396,700	34,334,000

RELIGION OF CHINA.—China, with its 400,000,000 of people, has no national religion; that is, no religion exclusively supported by the state, though the doctrines of Confucius are the only ones countenanced by it, not, however, to the prohibition of others. Religious beliefs are almost as various among the Chinese as among Christians. There is no well understood and universally acknowledged standard of doctrine among them. Va-

* Williams's China, vol. ii., chaps. xxii. xxiii. Chinese Repository, vols. 11, 3, 15, 2, 8 and 10. Lock's Events.

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rious religious observances and the most discordant opinions are found everywhere in China, even among those belonging to the same sect. "What is seen in one district," says Mr. Williams, "is sometimes utterly unknown in the next province, and the opinions of one man are laughed at by another."

Two things distinguished the religion of China, taken as a whole, from the faith of most other pagan nations that now exist or have existed: 1st, human sacrifices are unknown to them; and 2d, the deification of vice, as among the Greeks and Romans, and Hindus, is equally unknown. They have no Venus and Bacchus; no exposure in the temple of Mylitta, as among the Assyrians;* no weeping for Thammuz,

> "Whose annual wound in Lebanon allured
> The Syrian damsels to lament his fate
> In am'rous ditties all the summer's day."†

The Chinese, though a licentious people in word and deed, says Mr. Williams, "have not endeavored to sanctify vice, and lead the votaries of pleasure, falsely so called, down the road of ruin, by making its path lie through a temple, and under the protection of a goddess; nor does their mythology teem with the disgusting relations of the amours of their deities, which render the religious stories of the Hindus and Greeks so revolting; on the contrary, they exalt and deify chastity and seclusion as much as the Romanists do, as a means of bringing the soul and body nearer to the highest excellence. Vice is kept out of sight as well as out of religion, in a great degree, and it may be safely said that no such significant sign as has been uncovered at Pompeii, with the inscription *Hic habitat felicitas*, was ever exhibited in a Chinese city. It is a most remarkable trait of Chinese idolatry, that there is no deification of sensuality, which, in the name of religion, could shield and countenance those licentious rites and orgies that enervated the minds of worshipers, and polluted their hearts in so many other pagan countries."

Besides the doctrine of Confucius there are two other sects, *Fo*, or Buddhism, and *Taou*, or that of the Rationalists. The first acknowledges a Supreme Being, and believes the emperor his sole vicegerent on earth. Confucius, the elements, heaven, earth, gods of various attributes, saints, the emperor, &c., are objects of worship, the rites of which are watched over by the Board of Rites. The doctrine of Confucius fills the world with genii, demons, and the spirits of deceased worthies, who are supposed to have each their separate duties and influences assigned to them. No worship is so strictly observed as that of ancestry, and filial piety is carried to excess even beyond the grave. The Chinese are remarkable for their respect for old age, for their parents and superiors; and the promise attached to the fifth commandment they seem to have enjoyed.

"The state religion of the Chinese," says Dr. Morrison, "does not consist of doctrines which are to be taught, learned, and believed, but of rites and ceremonies; it is entirely a bodily service, and its ritual is contained in the statistics and code of the empire." Sacrifices are offered to the heavens or sky, the earth, the gods of the land and grain, to the sun, moon, to Confucius, the names of the emperors of former dynasties, to the ancient patrons of agriculture and silk-weaving; to the gods of heaven and earth, and the passing year; to the ancient patron of the healing art, and to the innumerable spirits of deceased philanthropists, eminent statesmen, martyrs to virtue, &c.; to clouds, rain, wind, and thunder; to the five celebrated mountains, four seas, and four rivers; to famous hills, great water-courses, flags, &c., &c., gods of cannon, gates, queen-goddess of earth, the north pole, and many other things too numerous to mention. There is at Peking a temple of the earth; another of heaven, of the sun, and of the moon.

The sacrifices consist of calves, bullocks, sheep, pigs, and silks. The animals are not killed before or on the altar, but brought into the temple ready dressed and cooked. The custom of presenting cooked sacrifices is general in Chinese worship. "The state religion of China," says Mr. Williams, "is a mere pageant, and can no more be called the religion of the Chinese than the teachings of Socrates could be termed the faith of the Greeks. It is, however, intimately connected with the sect of the Learned, or Confucianists, because all its members and priests are learned men, who venerate the classical writings." In every city there is a temple, containing the tutelar divinity of the

* Herodotus, i, 131, 199.
† Paradise Lost, i, 445.

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city, called *Chinghwang*, with other gods, and in these temples are the solstices, equinoxes, new and full moons. The magistrates repair to sacrifice to it and to the gods of the land and grain. Over the door of one of these temples in Canton is this inscription: "*Right and wrong, truth and falsehood, are blended on earth, but all are most clearly distinguished in heaven.*"

Of all the saints in the Chinese calendar Confucius is the chief, and there are 1,560 temples dedicated to him. The offerings presented in these temples are all eaten or used by the worshipers. It is said that there are 62,600 pigs, rabbits, sheep and deer, annually offered up to him on his altars, all cooked in the best Chinese style, and eaten by the worshipers. The church-goers in China are very numerous, the good fare served up in the temples being a strong inducement to church-going, which doubtless would prove quite irresistible even in a Christian country.

The temples of the Yu sect are very splendid. They generally consist of a large hall approached by a flight of steps, the idol being placed on an altar or table. Pictures adorn the walls, and gilded griffins and dragons the ceilings. Each temple has its apparatus for sacrificing animals. There is no congregational worship.

Buddhism is a despised creed in China, but still it prevails everywhere, and is followed more or less by all the Chinese. Dr. Morrison says: "Buddhism in China is decried by the learned, laughed at by the profligate, yet followed by all." Buddhism is doubtless as good a religion as any other in China. All creeds there are characterised by the grossest superstitions and ridiculous ceremonies. Mr. Malcolm, the missionary, gives a very favorable account of Buddhism in China. "It has no mythology," says he, "of obscene and ferocious deities; no sanguinary or impure observances; no self-inflicted tortures; no tyrannizing priesthood; no confounding of right and wrong, by making certain iniquities laudable in worship. In its moral code, its descriptions of the purity and peace of the first ages, of the shortness of man's life because of his sins, &c., it seems to have followed genuine traditions. In almost every respect it seems to be the best religion *man* ever invented."* The tenets of Buddhism require a renunciation of the world, and the observance of austerities to overcome evil passions, and fit its disciples for future happiness. A vow of celibacy is taken, and the priests dwell together for mutual assistance in attaining perfection by worshiping Buddha, and calling upon his name. Their monasteries, which are numerous, contain extensive libraries. They live by begging, by cultivating the soil around their temples, by fees for religious services, and by the sale of various trifles deemed valuable in their religion. As a class they sustain a good moral character.

The form of Buddhism prevalent among the Mongols and Thibetians of the Chinese Empire furnishes in its ritual the following decalogue: 1. Do not kill sentient beings. 2. Do not steal. 3. Do not marry. 4. Do not speak falsely. 5. Drink not wine. 6. Perfume not the hair on the crown, nor paint the body. 7. Do not behold songs or plays, and perform none thyself. 8. Sit not nor lie on a high large couch. 9. Do not eat after the time. 10. Do not grasp hold of gold or silver, or any valuable thing.†

The doctrines of the Buddhists seem mainly to rest on the principle that the world and all it contains are manifestations of the Deity, but of a transient and delusive character; that the human soul is an emanation from Deity; that after death it will again be bound to matter, and subjected to the miseries and accidents of this life, unless the individual to whom it belongs, by the attainment of wisdom through prayer and contemplation, succeeds in liberating it from that necessity, and secures its absorption into that divine essence from which it sprang.‡

Our limits forbid speaking extensively of the religion of the Chinese. Taouism, to which we have alluded, is a religion maintained in China by a sect called Rationalists. Its teachings are somewhat like those of Zeno. The founder of the sect was Lankiun, born B. C. 604, 54 years before Confucius. His doctrines are embodied in his great work, the *Tan Teh King*, or Memoir on Reason and Virtue. It is a sort of transcendentalism, making reason the es-

* Malcolm's Travels, vol. i., p. 322.
† Williams's China, vol. ii., p. 258.
‡ Brande's Encyclopædia.

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sence and source of everything. Retirement, contemplation and acts of benevolence, are enjoined. Like the system of Confucius, it contains much that is very good and much that is very ridiculous. It is just, however, to say, that, taken as a whole, the Memoir on Reason and Virtue abounds in genuine wisdom. M. Panthier praises it extravagantly. He says: "La sagesse humaine n'a peut-être jamais exprimé des paroles plus saintes et plus profondes." This is undoubtedly too high praise.

The Rationalists worship a great many idols, and their pantheon also includes genii, devils, inferior spirits, and numberless other objects of worship. We must refer our readers for a full description of this religion to Mr. Williams's *Middle Kingdom*, where they will find the religions of China fully discussed. All religions are tolerated in China. Mahometanism is found in all the provinces; also Judaism; and besides the two leading idolatrous sects which we have mentioned there are many societies and combinations, partly religious and partly political. That called the Triad Society is described by Mr. Williams as an order similar to that of Freemasonry; but from his description it is quite certain that it resembles Freemasonry in nothing but its being a secret order. The Triad Society is unpopular in China and denounced in the Chinese Code. The operations of the order are carried on with such great secrecy that very little is known, even in China, of their numbers, internal organization, or character. The Chinese government fears them. The order extends throughout China, Siam, Singapore, Malacca, and the Eastern Archipelago. In some places out of China the order is very powerful, and practises great cruelties on those who refuse to join it.*

There is among all the religious sects of China a mutual forbearance and respect which is highly praiseworthy. The government seems to care nothing about religion, only as a tool of political power. It tolerates everything that does not interfere with the state. It separates religion and politics completely, and as no sect has any state patronage, no one of them has the power to persecute. Buddhism seems to have the widest sway in China.†

* Middle Kingdom, vol. ii, p. 284.

† Williams's Middle Kingdom, passim. Davis's China, vol. i., p. 301, Gutzlaff's Voyages.

Language, Education and Literature.—We close this paper on China with a brief glance at its language, education and literature. The Chinese language is totally unlike that of any other. It is a most singular invention for communicating ideas, something intermediate between the hieroglyphic and alphabetic systems. Chinese writers ascribe the invention of the characters of their language to Hwangti, one of their first monarchs, who lived about 2,700 years before Christ. While all other languages have undergone remarkable changes, that of the Chinese, both written and spoken, has remained almost the same for many long periods of time; nor has there ever existed a language spoken by so many people as that of China. The primitive characters of the language are derived from natural or artificial objects. The total number of really different characters in the language, according to Mr. Williams, is about 25,000, though authors have stated them to amount to 54,409, as does Magaillons; and Montucci fixes the number at 260,899. The Chinese editor of the largest Chinese dictionary, upon which Dr. Morrison bases his, gives it as his opinion that there are 50,000 characters, including synonyms and different forms; and, taking in every variety of tones given to the words and sounds for which no characters exist, that there are 5,000 different words. The burden of remembering so many is so great that the literati have abridged them and increased their meanings, by which they save much toil. Mr. Williams states that a good knowledge of 10,000 characters will enable one to read any work in Chinese, and write intelligibly on any subject. Prémare says, that a good knowledge of 4,000 or 5,000 characters, or even two-thirds of that number, is sufficient for all common purposes. The variations were exceedingly numerous formerly; for example: there were 42 ways of writing the word *pau*, "precious;" and 41 for writing *tsum*, "honorable." In addition to the variations in the forms of characters, the Chinese have six different styles of writing them, which correspond to black-letter, script, italic, roman, &c., in English, but much more unlike than those. It requires much study to distinguish them, and more to write them. The Chinese have labored more in the mere matter of writing the forms of their language, than in

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discovering new ideas to record. This is the cause of the complexity, to a great degree, and variety of the forms of their characters. All the strokes in their characters are reduced to eight elementary ones.

Every character in Chinese has a sound, as much as in alphabetic languages, and some have more than one to express their different meanings; so that, although the character was not originally intended to delineate the sound of the thing it denoted, still the sound is the expression of the character.* Most of the compound characters are syllabic combinations. Nearly seven-eighths of all the characters of the language have been formed from less than 2,000 symbols.

The grammar of the Chinese language is unique. The use of particles supplies the place of inflexions. Neither the characters nor their names undergo any change; whether used as verbs, nouns, adjectives, or particles, they remain the same; number, gender, case, mood, tense and voice, are all indicated by adjuncts. The order of words in a sentence are, the subject, the verb, the complement direct, and the complement indirect; modifying expressions precede; the adjective stands before the substantive, and the substantive before the verb which governs it.

The Chinese have many grammatical and philological works, exhibiting however an ignorance of the general laws of language. No distinction is made in Chinese in the writing of proper and common names. In most books there is no punctuation or division into sentences and paragraphs. The Chinese ridicule punctuation. The Chinese language has been pronounced to be the most complete and beautiful in the world. It may be beautiful in some respects, but it is certainly a most unwieldy vehicle of thought.†

Education in China is extensively encouraged. Among the conservative influences in the Chinese system the general diffusion of education, and respect paid to literary pursuits growing out of the mode of obtaining office by literary pursuits, hold an important place. The importance of educating the people was acknowledged and practised upon in China even before the time of Confucius, B. C., 549, and at an age when no other nation had any system for general education. The great stimulus to literary pursuits among the people of China generally is the hope thereby of obtaining office and honor, and the only course of education followed is the classical and historical one prescribed by law. Every department of letters, except jurisprudence, history, and official statistics, is considered secondary, and the Chinese literary graduate of fourscore is ignorant of hundreds of the most common things pertaining to many branches of science. It was about A.D. 600 that Taitsung, of the Tang dynasty, instituted the present plan of preparing and selecting civilians by means of study and degrees; but education has always been highly esteemed by the Chinese, and always exerted a dominant influence on the manners and tastes of the people. Ample provisions have always been made for diffusing learning; and the example set by the Chinese government of rewarding with substantial and elevated and lucrative offices and honors all those who excel most in literary pursuits, might well be imitated by our own more enlightened government. Such, however, is not the disposition of the government of this great republic. The general government of the United States is not, it must be confessed, as much disposed to encourage literature and science as even the despotic governments. Here one is seldom rewarded by offices and honors for his extensive literary and scientific attainments; while, be it said to the shame of our government, nearly all offices and honors are bestowed on either professed office-seekers—and their name is legion—or on men who can command the influence of those in power by their wealth. Men in this country are not selected for office because they are profound scholars and imbued with all the wisdom and sound philosophy of the age. Their learning avails them nothing; but some rich, ignorant aspirant, without even a respectable knowledge of the first principles of a liberal education, can rise to lucrative offices by the power and influence that his wealth alone gives him. The system that our general government has thus far pursued in dispensing offices is one that is any thing but encouraging to literature and literary men. Education is the foundation of our liberties, and literary men ought to be encouraged in an especial manner by the government; but

* Williams's China, vol i., p. 481.
† Middle Kingdom, vol. i., chapter x. China Opened, vol. i., p. 391.

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such, unfortunately, is not the case. It bestows no honors or rewards for high literary attainments. The poor learned man stands no chance for office alongside of the ignorant rich one; and this accounts for the well-known fact, that we seldom find any office filled by one who owes his elevation to his literary or scientific attainments. Look over our widely extended republic, from Maine to California, and say whether those in office are the most intelligent, most highly educated, and the best in all respects that our population could afford. As a general rule the most learned live and die in comparative obscurity; while the *médiocre* are the ones elevated to power and honor.

This grave fault is not peculiar to the general government, which has so many offices to dispose of, but it is a characteristic fault of the masses, who are for the most part swayed by demagogism, and the money-making influences of the day. Look into our city offices, our legislatures, our national congress, and see if you can find there our most learned, our wisest, and our best citizens. They are not there; and yet they should be. Where are they? Left at home, because demagogism and wealth have more influence over the voting masses than profound learning, the highest literary and scientific attainments, and the many shining but modest virtues consequent on high education.

In China all state employments are given by competition, as school and college prizes, to the best scholars. Mr. McCulloch very truly observes, that "it is honorable to the Chinese, that for viceroys, magistrates, and other state-officers, merit alone is the qualification; the son of the poorest peasant may, by talent and application to learning, rise to the highest employments." Schools for youth are abundant in every part of the empire; and education is so general, and its cost so reasonable, that reading and writing, in China, may be almost said to be universal. The schools established all over the empire are superintended by various officers, appointed by government. In every district there is a literary chancellor; but early aspirants are examined by superintendents, who make the circuit of their district twice a year for that purpose. The pupils they approve of repair to the chief, and should they pass that ordeal, and thus obtain the approbation of the officers of their native district, they are eligible for the lowest literary honors of the state. For this, the first degree, the examinations take place twice every three years in every province. The scholars, having each a theme given them from the "Five Classics," in a large hall, are confined in separate boxes, to prevent their receiving assistance from others, and every avenue is strictly guarded by soldiers. The first degree, called *Tew-tsae*, having been attained, the aspirant has to acquire two other honors, in the metropolis of his province, and he is then placed on the books as eligible for employment, corresponding to his advancement. To procure the highest state offices, an examination before the National College is necessary; but the very pinnacle is only arrived at, by being examined by the emperor himself. Every literary honor confers the title of *mandarin*,* and each degree is distinguished by a difference of the dress, which is, in some instances, very splendid. The examinations are very rigid, and only a small number out of a vast crowd gain honors. The examination for the third degree takes place at Peking, and the traveling expenses of the candidates are sometimes paid by government. The successful candidates are all presented to the emperor, who bestows rewards upon the three highest. The fourth and highest degree is rather an office than a degree; for, those who attain it are enrolled as members of the Imperial Academy, and receive salaries. The examination is held in the emperor's palace, in the presence of the highest personages of the empire.

The system of education in China is like almost everything else there, exceedingly defective; but great good is nevertheless the result; and the regard and material encouragement held out by the government to all scholars, is truly praiseworthy and deserving of imitation.

Female education in China is less encouraged, but it is nevertheless favorably regarded, and not altogether neglected. Literary attainments are considered creditable to a woman, and the names of female authors, mentioned in Chinese annals, would make a long list. Yuen Yuen, the governor-general of

* From the Portuguese and Spanish *mandar*, to command.

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Canton, in 1820, while in office, published a volume of his deceased daughter's poetry; and the literary men are usually desirous of having their daughters accomplished in music, poetry, composition, and classic lore. Such an education is considered befitting their station, and reflecting credit on the family. One of the most celebrated female writers in China is Pan Hwuipan, who flourished about A. D. 80. She wrote a work entitled female precepts, which has formed the basis of many succeeding works in Chinese on female education. The aim of her writings was to elevate female character and make it virtuous. Other Chinese authoresses treat on various subjects, but mostly on morals and domestic economy. Chinese literary ladies are held in general respect, and more of the females of China can read and write their own language than is generally supposed. The Chinese do not, as has been represented, make slaves of their wives, and Chinese females are in a far better condition than those of other pagan or unevangelized countries, or even than the females of the ancient Greeks and Romans.*

The literature of the Chinese is very extensive. "It would not be hazarding too much to say," says Mr. Medhurst, "that in China there are more books, and more people to read them, than in any other country in the world. Among the 360,000,000 of Chinamen, at least 2,000,000 are literati."† There is not, however, much that is original in their books, the belief of the Chinese being general that their books already contain all that is known or that is to be known; that there is no room for further discoveries, their ancient sages having exhausted every subject. Hence the stationary character of Chinese civilization. The scientific and philosophical works of the Chinese are those of Confucius and the "ten philosophers," or his disciples and commentators. Chinese literature has been, through ignorance of it, very unjustly depreciated. Klaproth, in his *Memoires*, vol. iii., p. 267, contradicts the statement that has so often been made, that the Chinese believed China to occupy the centre of the world, and that it is surrounded with a few insignificant and petty territories, all its tributaries. He says:—'Je n'ai pas besoin de refuter ici l'idée absurde de ceux qui prétendent que les Chinois croient que leur pays est situé au milieu du monde. Un molelat, ou un couli du Canton peut, à la vérité, donner une pareille explication, mais c'est à l'intelligence de celui qui questionne de l'adopter ou de la rejeter.'"

Some idea further than that afforded by Remusat, may be gained of the extent of Chinese literature, from the fact, as stated by Mr. Williams, that the *Sz Fu Tsiuen Shu Tsung-muh*, or Catalogue of all the Books in the Four Libraries, consists, of itself alone, of one hundred and twelve octavo volumes of 300 pages each, and giving the titles, and a brief synopsis of the contents of upwards of 20,000 works, and these not all, but only the best works in the language. The catalogue arranges the books into four divisions, viz., classical, historical, professional writings, and belles-lettres.

M. Remusat, Staunton, the two Morrisons, and others best acquainted with the language and literature of the Chinese, speak in the highest terms of the polite literature of the Chinese. Many of their works on history, biography, statistics, etc., are very valuable and interesting. Their biographies are both of men and women, in which latter is exhibited their high consideration for literary women. These biographies, as also many other works, are very voluminous. They have a biographical dictionary in 120 volumes. They have also a work very popular among the Chinese, entitled *Memoirs of Distinguished Ladies*, written by Lin Hiang, 124 B. C. They have also a very valuable work, entitled Complete Antiquarian Researches of Ma Twantin, who

* Williams's China, vol. i, p. 456, also the whole of the chapter.

† China Opened, vol. i, p. 417. M. Abel Remusat, speaking of Chinese literature, also observes: "L'histoire littéraire, la critique des textes, et la biographie, sont le sujet d'une foule d'ouvrages remarquable par l'ordre et la régularité qui y sont observés. On possède beaucoup des traductions des livres Sanscrits sur la religion et la metaphysique. Les lettres cultivent la poesie, qui est assujetie chez eux au double joug de la mesure et de la rime; ils ont des poëmes lyriques et narratifs, et surtout des poëmes descriptifs, des pièces de théâtre, des romans des mœurs, des romans où les merveilleux est mis en usage. On a composé en outre un très grand nombre des recueils speciaux et généraux, des bibliothèques et des encyclopédies, et dans le dernier siècle on avait commencé l'impression d'une collection des ouvrages choisies en 180,000 volumes! Les Chinois ont d'excellents dictionnaires où tous les signes de leur écriture, et tous les mots de leur langue sont expliqués, avec le plus grand soin, et dans un ordre tres regulier. Enfin il n'y a pas meme en Europe, de nation chez laquelle on trouve tant des livres, ni des livres si bien fait, si commodes à consulter, et à si bas prix."

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lived A. D. 1275. It is a very extensive and profound work, containing researches upon every matter relating to government, and extending through a series of dynasties which held the throne nearly 40 centuries. Remusat says of it: "This excellent work is a library by itself, and if Chinese literature possessed no other, the language would be worth learning for the sake of reading this alone." Mr. Williams says of it: "It elevates our opinion of a nation whose literature can boast of a work like this."

We are compelled, very unwillingly, to close here this paper on China, for the want of space. There are a great number of subjects which we are obliged to pass over without even naming them; and yet it would be an exceedingly interesting task to discuss them. We may, however, resume the subject in some future number.

ART. V.—THE BALTIMORE SOUTHERN COMMERCIAL CONVENTION.

We have received the proceedings of the Southern Commercial Convention, held in Baltimore, and regret that we were unable to accept an invitation to be present. The temporary officers were J. C. Brune and J. F. Pickrell. The Committee on Resolutions were, Hon. J. D. Freeman, Mississippi; Hon. J. C. Jones, Tennessee; Hon. J. R. Underwood, Kentucky; Hon. T. L. Clingman, North Carolina; Hon. J. L. Orr, South Carolina; Lieut. M. F. Maury, Virginia; C. G. Baylor, Esq., District Columbia; P. H. Sullivan, Esq., Maryland; Hon. J. L. Robinson, Indiana; Hon. John Moore, Louisiana; Hon. T. M. Taylor, Missouri; Hon. Richard Apperson, Kentucky; Hon. R. I. Bowie, Maryland; Hon. Alex. White, Alabama.

The Hon. Wm. C. Dawson, of Georgia, was elected president of the convention. The following resolutions were adopted, together with one that the convention meet again on the first Monday of June next at Memphis.

Resolved, That we highly approve the admirable address by which we have been welcomed to Baltimore, and that we sympathize with the noble efforts which the city of Baltimore has made, and is yet making, to secure the trade and commerce of the states to the South, and in the valley of the South.

Resolved, That the prosperity and permanency of the Union will be greatly promoted by the multiplication of the means of commercial and social intercourse in the several states, and that this convention recommends that every effort should be made, consistent with our obligations to the whole, to increase the intercommunication between the cities and states of the South, West, and Southwest.

Resolved, That the Atlantic cities and states of the South are on the great natural highways of commerce—the gulf-stream—and these states should improve the facilities offered by nature by resorting to all the aids of science and art.

Resolved, That among these facilities we hail the speedy completion of the Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road with great satisfaction, and look to it as opening a new channel of trade greatly beneficial to the interior states of the Union, and especially those bordering the Ohio river.

Resolved, That the question of a great commercial centre of commerce for national exchanges will necessarily depend upon the cheapness of transportation, and that it is of great importance to the West and South, and Southwest, to ascertain the prices of freight and transportation to Baltimore, and from Baltimore to Liverpool, and other important points of Europe.

Resolved, That a committee of —— be appointed by the chairman to ascertain and publish, after the completion of the Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road to Wheeling, the rates of transportation on that road of all important articles of commerce.

Resolved, That it is recommended to the merchants of Baltimore, as a means of securing the trade of the West, Southwest, and South, to establish a line or lines of steamers between Baltimore and Liverpool, and other important parts of Europe and South America.

Resolved, That while we disdain the slightest prejudice or hostility to the welfare and prosperity of any particular

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section or city, North or South, we would promote, as we think we reasonably might, consistent with the laws of trade, its great central position, the commercial interests and prosperity of Baltimore, as being well calculated to excite a wholesome and beneficial competition with more northern Atlantic cities, which could not fail to be peculiarly advantageous to the whole South, Southwest, and West, and, in fact, to the nation at large.

Resolved, That true policy requires the United States to foster steamboat communication between the South and the Amazon, and to build up commerce with the Atlantic slope of South America.

On the part of the Board of Trade of Baltimore, Brantz Mayer, Esq., opened the convention with the following address to the people of the South and West:

We have invited you to meet us, in the city of Baltimore, in order to consider questions of interest to the sections of country whence you come, as well as to ourselves. It is our duty as well as our pleasure to seize the earliest moment to thank you for the alacrity and good-will with which you have so cordially responded to our call.

Gentlemen, we have summoned you here to-day to lay, with proper services, and to cement with hearty feeling, the corner-stone of a great National Exchange. Many circumstances have lately combined to direct public notice towards the city of Baltimore as the most suitable mart for the productions in which your parts of the Union are so deeply concerned. When the census of 1850 was first published, and it was seen that the population of Baltimore had augmented in a larger proportion within the preceding ten years than that of any other Atlantic city, men asked themselves the question, why this had occurred, and found no solution save in the facts that there was a zealous stir of enterprising activity among our people, fostered by the hopeful prospect of future progress,—that our internal improvements were tending to develop a region fraught with wealth, not only to our state but to other sections, and that Baltimore, in truth, *was the original and natural terminus of our great internal trade, indicated by nature herself in the geography of our country.*

And is not this true? It will be allowed by every one who recalls the history of colonial and revolutionary times, and remembers that Baltimore-Town, in those days, was the spot whence the adventurer and the soldier set forth, wending their way westward by Fort Cumberland, until they penetrated that wilderness which has been subdued and civilized by the courageous enterprise of your hardy ancestors. It was from Baltimore-Town, then already a place of significance at the head of the finest inland navigation in the world, that the pioneer and trader sallied forth with trains of pack-horses, to bear their luxuries and necessaries into the wilderness, in order to exchange them for the peltries which were, at that time, almost the only "circulating medium" of the region. Maryland, lying like a wedge between Pennsylvania and Virginia, and having in its centre another wedge, in its magnificent bay and river, whose affluents penetrated its northwesternmost corner, afforded the easiest levels as a channel of trade for passing the mountains and reaching the navigable waters of the Ohio; and thus our state became the chief line of American travel, and our city the chief depot between the shores of the Atlantic and the valleys beyond the Alleghany range. Baltimore, therefore, is fairly to be regarded as the natural and earliest historical friend and commercial ally of the West. It was so in the days when Washington and Braddock pursued the line of travel I have indicated; and in periods when the common interests and common sense of men pointed out a trail for trade, independently of all extraneous influences.

But, gentlemen, it is not to be denied that although Baltimore, very soon after the adoption of the Constitution of the United States, was acknowledged to be the great flour and tobacco mart of the country, as well as, perhaps, the best market for provisions—she still, in time, found that her commerce diminished, while that of other sections, which apparently were not entitled to such advantages, became proportionably enlarged. This may be attributed to three causes:—the opening of the navigation of the Mississippi, which gave its mouth as a vent for internal commerce;—the introduction of steam on that river and its tributaries as the motive power for

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trade and travel;—and the construction of the Erie Canal, backed by the masterly system of internal improvements of New-York, which has tapped the lakes and western waters, developed its own immense interior resources, and poured the wealth of the northwest into the lap of its thriving metropolis. Thus, the old trade, which, in earlier days concentrated at Pittsburgh or Wheeling, and pursued its slow journey over the mountains in the "Conestoga wagons," —which were the successors of "pack-horse caravans"—was gradually absorbed and taken away by the ingenuity of an opulent rival.

But you are aware, gentlemen, that *Baltimore was no laggard in seizing the means of reasserting her natural supremacy in the internal commerce of North America.* We perceived the cause, and we endeavored to apply the remedy. We saw that art, skill, and capital, had striven to overcome nature and distance, and we resolved to make the same elements of success restore nature to her original rights.

Accordingly, about a quarter of a century ago, many of our opulent and enterprising citizens determined to make that gigantic internal improvement which, on the first day of January, 1853, is to signalize the opening of a new year by wedding the Ohio and the Chesapeake, and securing an uninterrupted intercourse, which shall place the Western citizen and his valuable produce on the Atlantic coast within fifteen hours!

This great work has been long delayed. There were many reasons. It was the pioneer railway of the Union, as Baltimore had been the pioneer port in Western intercourse. The art of construction had risen from mere speculation to a science during the period of its building; and besides we had to encounter manifold impediments and financial difficulties, all of which it would be idle to recount. Nevertheless, so confident were we of the worth of our enterprise, that we have not suffered ourselves to be daunted by any obstacles. We have mined our way through mountains, and we have taxed ourselves heavily, both as Baltimoreans and Marylanders, until, with the true labor of resolved faith, we have succeeded in completing the enormous task.

It is under such circumstances, fellow-citizens of the South and West, that we ask you to come hither and tell us that our judgment was right—that our opinion of the channel of trade was correct—and that we labored not in vain for the friendship of those sections to which nature had originally allied us, and to which art has once more happily restored us after so many years of unnatural estrangement!

But, gentlemen, while, in Baltimore, we have been striving to make this work, by the expenditure of private and public means, other cities have not hesitated to attempt outgeneraling us in our efforts to regain your favor. Boston, New-York, Philadelphia, have all striven to grasp the whole, or, at least, to gain a considerable part, of the wealth that your industry produces. Yet, in this instance, all their art—all their ingenuity—could not effect *two* results, without which their attempts must be unavailing. They could not destroy *the geographical facts* that Baltimore was not only the natural channel of trade, *but that it was, also, the central point* of the sea-board union, in instantaneous intercourse with the national capital — and that *its rail-way is the shortest, most direct, and economical communication between the Ohio and the sea.*

In order to illustrate our position, let me ask you to look, when you have time, at any skeleton map of the United States, on which the great lines of rail-way are laid down. You will instantly observe, that, while Boston, New-York and Philadelphia stretch out their iron arms with longing *towards the West*, every grasp they make drags your produce over a longer road, and, of course, at a higher cost, than we shall, after the first of January, 1853. Nor is this all. Whilst seeking to communicate with the Ohio, we have not been unmindful that there were northern streams and lakes which might contribute to Baltimore's prosperity, and afford many articles of value to our southern friends. And, accordingly, we have hastened to thread the valley of the Susquehanna with a road approaching completion, which, uniting with the Erie Railway in the State of New-York, will place the lake at Dunkirk, thirty-nine miles nearer to Baltimore than to New-York city by the present channel of intercourse. Nay, you will observe some-

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thing more, by the inspection of such a map. You will find that, geography having made Baltimore the great, natural, central entrepot of the Union, on tide water — the great receptacle of internal produce and foreign distribution, we have gradually completed or projected a connected system of railways, steam communication, canals, and vessels, diverging northeastwardly to Philadelphia, New-York, Boston and the New-England States generally; northerly, through the valley of the Susquehanna into the hearts of Pennsylvania and New-York; westwardly, by the Patapsco and Potomac valleys, through Virginia, to the Ohio, in the direction of St. Louis; southwestwardly, to Winchester, Washington and Richmond; southwardly, by steamers and rail to Portsmouth, Weldon, Wilmington, and, shortly, to Charleston; southwardly, again by steamer direct to the last-named port; and, finally, eastward, to the ocean, by lines of ships communicating with England, Germany, Holland, France, the West Indies, the Spanish Main, New-Orleans, Savannah, Mobile, the British Northern Possessions, New-England, both coasts of South America, and the golden shores of California.

This map will show you, then, that all these various lines of trade, domestic and foreign, converge at Baltimore, like the spokes of a wheel, making our city the great central axle of a trade, whose circumference should touch and gather the produce of every section.

Securing, therefore, our natural and geographical right to a large share of the produce of those valleys which drain the western slopes of Virginia and Pennsylvania, the States of Kentucky, Ohio, Tennessee, Missouri, Illinois, and Indiana; holding, moreover, a close intercourse with the broad lakes and their fruitful borders, through the valley of the Susquehanna; may we not justly say to you, gentlemen, that our central position and facilities of transportation, make us, *obviously, a national entrepot, and will force the North to regard Baltimore as the best exchange for the disposal of its manufactures, and its best market for you?*

The answer, we think, is ready. in the collossal fortunes already realized from Southern purchasers by enterprising Eastern and Northern men who had the sagacity to detect this fact, and came hither to establish commercial agencies. Nay—with all the energy of Boston—Boston is beginning to emigrate to New-York. Her thrifty people, keen to appreciate and swift to seize compulsory destiny, no longer content themselves by diminishing their profits in the loss of commissions, but abandon their opulent agents, and establish, in that metropolis, commercial houses directly and originally concerned in manufactures. Gradually, their progress will be further southward, until, reaching our city, *as the true centre of national commerce*, they will find that Baltimore is the best market in which the varied products of the plantation, the farm, and the factory, can meet for profitable interchange.

Baltimore is nearest the North, nearest the South, nearest the West; so central, in fact, as to be nearest all. It is nearest the manufacturer of the North—the producer of the South and West—the speculator of Europe, and purchasers everywhere.

These inducements of geographical position, ease of communication, and rapid centralization of future trade, might be sufficient to turn your kind attention to Baltimore as a home market, but there are other views and interests we must not neglect to touch on briefly.

Our city, gentlemen, is already one of the largest commercial ports of the Union. Our state is a small one, but its people are industrious, thrifty and energetic. We are blessed by a genial, healthful climate, and, while our laws are just in their operation among ourselves, they are not unfavorable to the personal welfare of the stranger who may sojourn among us. I have already noticed the surprising decennial augmentation of our numbers. Maryland, accordingly, *possesses within herself* the material elements of wealth, adequate to build up a great capital, and assure the commercial safety and supply of all who deal with her.

The manufactures of Maryland in every branch of industry *must* thrive, increase and prevail. The geological features of our section are peculiarly favorable to factories. The tide water of the Chesapeake washes the eastern base of that formation which runs parallel with the Atlantic coast, while abundant streams from that elevated ridge precipitate themselves in a succession of falls

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to the rivers, from an elevation generally amounting to about 600 feet, within a distance around Baltimore comprised in a radius of twenty-five miles. It has been calculated that within ten miles of the city there is *water-power* sufficient for near half a million of spindles, a large portion of which is still unapplied to any kind of manufacture.

If water is abundant, coal and iron are not less so. Our Cumberland region is known throughout the world as producing the best "evaporative material," in its semi-bituminous coal, hitherto discovered; and the capitalists of the North are eagerly grasping those mines which must control so much labor and navigation. Hard by these mines, iron is stacked up in mountains, awaiting the development of time and industry; while, by railway and the Susquehanna Canal, anthracite coal is brought from a region which Pennsylvania has been slack in opening. Now, who does not know what powerful elements of England's wealth her coal and iron have been; but *there are* multitudes who do *not* know, that, from the abandoned *furnaces* of old Revolutionary days in our state—whose ruins may still be traced, —that very England was supplied, to some extent, with "pig iron which was in high repute!"

Nor are our agricultural resources to be forgotten. The census of 1850 displays a teeming list of our productions. Flour, corn, tobacco, and stock, raised so abundantly on our fertile levels, long ago constituted Baltimore one of the best provision markets of the Union. The facility of selling here, has caused the West and adjacent South to select our market, even at a time when wagons and horses performed the work of cars and steam. The consequence has been that the British West Indies are now almost exclusively supplied with provisions by our merchants, and that a trade is daily augmenting with the continent of Europe, with free-trade England, with the Spanish Main and islands, and with both coasts of North and South America.

But grain and provisions do not alone absorb the great bulk of our commerce. Our traditionary staple is the favorite luxury—tobacco. Long before Revolutionary times,—long, even, before our city opened and developed a trade with the West,—Baltimore and the towns along our Maryland water courses were the centres and marts of the American tobacco trade. At one time the leaf itself was our precious currency; and when commerce introduced *paper* as a circulating medium, it was still the familiar engraving of this leaf that authenticated "*a note*" to the people. In spite of all competition, accordingly, we have hitherto been enabled to maintain our commercial supremacy in this article; and, as our road and its western continuations penetrate farther and farther the heart of those new lands which are favorable to its planting, we mean, by the facilities afforded, and the concentration of operations, to consolidate the monopoly in this seaboard market. Heavy articles, like flour and tobacco, designed for export, seek the swiftest, nearest, and cheapest conveyance to the sea; and Baltimore must, therefore, continue to maintain its high commercial character in those productions, as well as provisions generally, by the facilities it will ever afford to the best producers.

Such, gentlemen, were some of the elements of our own domestic trade, within our neighborhood, even before the entire opening of our great internal improvement; yet, I should not forget to enumerate among our home wealth, the products of our bay,—its fisheries and its luxurious oysters,—demanded in such quantities at the West as to absorb a large transportation tonnage, and to lay the foundation of distinguished private fortunes. Nor should I neglect to mention our industrial establishments, our machine shops, our ship-building, our luxurious stores, filled with every article of comfort, elegance, taste, or necessity, —all pledged to respond to your wants as readily and cheaply as the dealers of any other market in the country.

I have spoken somewhat at large of our domestic trade; let me now briefly advert to our foreign. When a domestic trade concentrates at a depot on tidewater, foreign trade must follow as a natural consequence. Accordingly, Baltimore, except in seasons of great disaster or war, has never been without a liberal commerce. England is largely a purchaser of our provisions and luxuries. Germany and France nearly monopolize our tobacco; and, carrying the article on better terms in their own vessels, they send them hither laden with emigrants who are to fill up the unoccupied lands

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of the South and West, and to supply a large portion of necessary labor. Thus, indirectly, we are important agents in promoting the welfare of mankind in both hemispheres.

Our commercial intercourse is, moreover, extensive with the West Indies and the Southern Continent; with the British possessions of North America, and with our own Eastern Atlantic coast, whence a large trade has been opened in goods sent hither to be sold on commission.

Nor have we only the ability to sell and send abroad what you send us, and, in return, to supply you with the necessaries and luxuries you may require—but we may, also, offer you the prospects of profitable intercourse with a city which is financially sound—ready to give every just facility—prompt to sustain the relations of honorable commerce—averse to chicanery and craft—free from the mania of speculation in property or stock—and sustained by ample capital and banks of unblemished repute.

We have heard it urged against us that Baltimore is not a seaport! But this is a quibbling fallacy. A seaport is not made alone by the horizon of the ocean. Baltimore on tide-water is within ten or twelve hours steaming of the sea, and is all the safer for lying in the embracing protection of her magnificent bay, where her trade and the trade that may be entrusted to her, will be more secure—as our unaided citizens proved in the last war—than on the exposed margin of an ocean. The great cities of nations are not necessarily placed on a sea-board. It was not the mere sea facility that made them opulent, before the days of steam. Their accessibility—to and from the ocean—is the important thing. Great cities should, like Baltimore, rather be placed near the commercial centres of productive countries, where the various avails of labor and climate can most conveniently meet for exchange. Paris, London, Vienna, Antwerp, Amsterdam, Bremen, Hamburg, are not on the sea, though all are great capitals, great centres of trade, and conduct their business chiefly by sea, while one of them is the financial centre of the continent of Europe.

Gentlemen, as we have shown you why we think both Nature and Art have made Baltimore the natural point of trade for all sections—thus demonstrating its advantageous position for domestic commerce—we trust you have also seen just cause to rely on our foreign trade, augmented in proportion to our sanguine anticipations of your favor.

The tie of the West to us is unquestionably natural, historical and actual; our productions are alike, and we have both sought to develop and dispose of them. The South, too,—our old colonial ally,—has a deep concern in our welfare, which is evident in the history of our state—the characteristic habits and tastes of our people, and the nature of a large portion of our agriculture. Why should not the South garrison our bulwark state with the irresistible element of commercial supremacy? We have a mutual stake in the security of our labor. We think it would be impugning the intelligence of that South—of which we regard ourselves an integral part—to address it argument in support of Baltimore as a great common mart of production and trade near the north. All its staple will find a ready sale in our city. Sugar, rice and an increased supply of cotton will always be demanded through Baltimore for our trade with the West, Northwest and North, as well as for our exports and our domestic consumption. In return, we are ready to furnish, speedily, cheaply and faithfully, all your personal necessaries and luxuries, as well as the supplies for your plantations. From our own wants, we know and justly sympathize with yours.—We are disposed—not in a sectional spirit—not with a desire to weaken the Union—to join you in freeing the American mind from that unmanly subservience—that colonial obedience,—which is so rapidly making us dependent on the North. The northern capitals feel the danger of this fact, for they do all they can to encourage the absorbing metropolitan sentiment, and to fix the vassalage of the South and West by that commercial lien of extravagance and debt which may ruin sections as it has often ruined individuals. Steam and electricity are rapidly consolidating us; yet New-York and Boston ignore the existence of any commercial capitals but themselves, while their presses diffuse information as to their own allurements alone, and rarely mention a rival city save to disparage its worth and exalt their own.

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But these matters are not to be judged merely by feeling and sentiment. We are addressing men alive to their interests, but who know no interests that conflict with honor. We have opened our views, and expressed our welcome briefly, but with honest cordiality. We believe that Baltimore, as the mart for the best coal used in the propulsion of ocean steamers, and lying on the sea-like Chesapeake, will soon, with your countenance, build up a steam fleet to carry the commerce which our combined farming, planting, and manufacturing interests will supply or demand. Already, a regular steamer plies between Baltimore and Charleston, and the increased trade she has begotten demands the speedy launching of another. Savannah, Mobile and the Texan ports have shown anxiety to confirm a direct trade with us. If it shall be assured, we have capitalists among us who will not shrink from the discreet enterprise. This will ensure regular southern ocean lines to the South; and will fringe our coast with our own steamers, from the Chesapeake to the remotest borders of our territory. It is a well known fact that previous to 1817, cotton, though not a staple of Maryland, entered largely into the commerce and consumption of Baltimore. If the British possessions in the West Indies can be supplied with provisions from the Baltimore market, in return for their colonial produce, why cannot the South pursue the same course? Does not our whole southern country — whose correspondence and productions furnish probably one-half of the postage on foreign mail intercourse by steam—feel the neglect of government, when it remembers that, with the exception of the Isabel, hardly a dollar has been given from the national treasury to build or maintain a southern steamer? Why should not a regular line, carrying the mail, depart from this great central mart, and coasting the whole south, supply its people, swiftly and surely, not only with news, but personal transportation?

Wider markets, too, are rapidly opening to the world's competition. Men are impatient of sails, and the day will come when it is no prophecy to say, that foreign commerce, as well as war, will be driven exclusively by steam. In South America, the Amazon and the tributaries of the La Plata are to give us a trade scarcely inferior to that which was developed by the emancipation of the Spanish possessions on our continent. An extensive colonial commerce already exists from this port with Africa; and the enlightened head of our navy has dispatched an officer to explore the adjacent coasts and their commercial advantages. With the empire of Brazil and the Argentine Confederation, our intercourse is of long and valuable standing. In India, too, the discoverer is abroad, seeking, on the continent, as well as among the isles of Japan, new vents for American trade and its results. Why, then, should we hesitate to adopt this central port and those modern vehicles for our trade which are unmistakably indicated by the spirit of the age;—and why should we not boldly demand for them the cordial cherishing of our government?

Gentlemen, we do not churlishly ask you to come to us to trade alone, and then to take your profit and depart. We desire to give no spendthrift promises, but we intend, as opportunities are presented, to make our city a place worthy of your sojourning. We have now little but personal hospitality to offer you; yet there is a spirit abroad that is disposed to make Baltimore a great capital, every way worthy of its site and of the intercourse we solicit. We intend that you shall be fittingly entertained. In time, Baltimore will have more luxurious surroundings to greet, attract and amuse the stranger. We know that the honesty and energy of the merchant or mechanic are often aided, successfully, by the charms and instruction with which art, science and taste invest a capital. These gratifying and discreet allurements shall not be wanting to make you pleasantly comfortable during your temporary residence among us; but, at all times, you will receive that home welcome in our dwellings for which Baltimore has not, we hope, been unjustly praised.

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ART. VI.—THE FISCAL HISTORY OF TEXAS.

STATEMENT OF REVENUES, DEBTS AND CURRENCY, FROM THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE REVOLUTION IN 1834, TO 1852, WITH REMARKS ON AMERICAN DEBTS.

[It was the editor's wish to have prepared the article reviewing Mr. Gouge's book himself, but press of engagements compelled him to leave it to another, who has furnished the following. Should others be disposed to discuss the subject briefly in the pages of the Review, they are extended now, as in the past, for that purpose.]

THIS work* contains an interesting account of the various modes in which the debt of Texas was created during the existence of the Republic, and a full explanation of the legislation of the State of Texas on that subject since she has become a member of the Union. The historian has not only presented all the facts bearing on the debts of Texas in the order of their occurrence in a very clear and striking manner, but has made his narrative a vehicle for enforcing sound doctrines on subjects of the highest importance to the public at all times —such as the nature of state securities, the obligation imposed by public debt, together with numerous questions concerning currency and finance, which are far more clearly and forcibly illustrated by the progress and result of the measures explained in the history, than could be done by any didactic statements. The book is, in fact, a book of political philosophy, in which the conduct of Texas is taken as the theme, and the true principles of currency and finance thereby illustrated, for the most part, by "the rule of opposites."

Some have wondered that Mr. Gouge, having determined to write a volume, great part of the contents of which should be of general interest, should have selected for his subject what compelled him to give a local title to his book. But we do not wonder at it. Looking round among the states, he found no one the fiscal history of which afforded so many examples for illustrating the true principle of currency and finance, "by the rule of opposites," as did that of Texas, and he chose that accordingly. As he justly observes, "History is of importance only as it illustrates principles, and principles may be as strikingly illustrated in the small communities of Rhode Island, Delaware or Texas, as in the larger ones of New-York, Massachusetts or Virginia."

Of the general tone of the book, some judgment may be formed from the following passage in the introduction:

"The paper-money disease is hereditary with us Americans. If it is subdued in one form, it breaks out in another. To the old provincial paper-money, succeeded state paper-money and continental money. Then, brought almost to death's door by the violence of our complaint, we searched for a remedy, and thought we had found one in that provision of the United States Constitution which declares that, 'no state shall emit bills of credit.' The disease, however, soon made its appearance with new vigor; the states evading the principles of the Constitution by establishing corporations to do that which they have not power to do themselves.

"Do the banks suspend specie payments? This only increases the amount of paper issues and the number of paper issuers. The corporations of cities and towns, turnpike companies, bridge companies, rail-road companies, and individuals in all the private walks of life, immediately commence the issue of notes for dollars and the fractional parts of dollars. A new term is not then introduced into the language, but a new application is made of an old term, and 'shin-plasters' mean in America, what 'shin-plasters' mean nowhere else.

"Does the United States government want money? Instead of borrowing gold and silver, it borrows paper from the banks, or resorts to the issue of treasury notes, and makes them receivable for duties. In the only very important war we have had since the war of Independence, it kept on with the issue of these notes till they were depreciated far be-

* It was written by W. M. Gouge, author of "A Short History of Paper-money and Banking in the United States." Philadelphia: Lippencott, Grambo & Co. 8vo., pp. 331. In 1848 or 1849. there appeared in the pages of the Review an article which discussed the debt of Texas with great minuteness.

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low par; and the contrivances resorted to in the times of Van Buren and Polk to throw into circulation treasury notes bearing no interest, or only nominal interest, show that even these statesmen, from whose professed principles better things might be looked for, are themselves deeply infected with the hereditary disease of the nation. If such slight fiscal embarrassments as were felt in the times of Polk and Van Buren could induce them to sanction or connive at the issue of treasury notes bearing no interest, or only nominal interest, there is every reason to believe that, in a period of real exigency, they would have resorted to the issue of treasury notes of such small denominations as would have driven gold and silver out of circulation.

"Do we wish to get rid of a Bank of the United States? We proceed in such a way that, in putting down one bank, we put up five hundred.

"Does the deep experience of the evils we have suffered under both a national bank and a league of 'pet banks' incline us to separate bank and state? Our sub-treasury system is so imperfectly framed, that disbursing officers must, of necessity, use banks as depositories; and then, though the revenues of government are collected in gold and silver, they are paid in paper.

"Is one form of paper banking found not to answer? We then resort to another. To acts incorporating each bank separately, succeed general banking laws by which they are incorporated altogether.

"Does a 'safety fund' afford evidence by its own action that there is no safety in it? Then we resort to 'free banking,'* and require, from the issues of notes, deposits of mortgages and stocks by way of security. The system does very well in fair weather, and we inquire no further.

"Do the states want money? They, perhaps, like Pennsylvania, resort to a pitiful evasion of the organic law of the Union, and issue 'relief notes:' or, it may be, like Indiana, more boldly violate the federal constitution, by emitting small bills of credit, and calling them treasury notes.

"Do the banks throughout the country suspend specie payments? Then we have a good opportunity of getting rid of the whole concern. But we do not embrace it. We re-establish the system by *coercing* a return to specie payments—a measure which inflicts twice as much evil on the community as would be produced by gradually winding up the suspended institutions. We will do any thing, we will suffer any thing, rather than give up our paper money.

"Occasionally, in particular parts of the country, suffering intensely under our hereditary malady, we resort to severe legal and even constitutional provisions to prevent further issues of paper. But the power that makes state constitutions and state laws can also unmake them: and we hardly become convalescent before we relapse into our old disease.

"Texas, though it, from 1835 to 1845, formed no part of the American Union, was yet an American State. It was a state *without* the Union. The people were Americans by birth, thought, habits, feeling. Their political institutions distinguished them in one particular only from the states *within* the Union. They had within them that disease which taints all American blood, the paper money disease, inherited from their ancestors. This, 'the original sin' of America, had never been washed away by any baptism of sufferings. It is interesting to trace the manner in which this hereditary corruption displayed itself, under the peculiar circumstances in which the Texans were placed, free from the restraints imposed by the United States Constitution."

In his former work, "A Short History of Paper Money and Banking in the United States," our author gave his views of the evils of bank paper money. In this volume he gives his views of the evils of government paper money. The misuse of the treasury note system is what he fears will at some time embarrass the fiscal operations of the federal government, if not involve them in inextricable confusion. He holds up the fate of the treasury note system of Texas as a warning, and more than once makes a special application of his doctrines to the concerns of the United States.

Mr. Gouge's views of public debt are briefly as follows:

"1. A public debt is a public evil.

"2. Nevertheless, it is sometimes necessary to incur public debts in order to secure the liberty and independence of

* See the able papers on "Free Banking," in vols. xiii. and xiv. of De Bow's Review.

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a nation. In such cases we submit to one evil in order to avoid a greater.

"3. In other cases it seems expedient to incur public debts, even when they are not absolutely necessary. The benefits resulting from them may more than compensate for the evils.

"4. Great caution should be had in incurring public debts, because there are not naturally the same check on them as on private debts. The private man who incurs a debt has to depend upon himself alone for the payment of both principal and interest. The public men who create debts throw all the burden of paying them on others. They may incur these debts for their own special benefit, and the community will have to pay them. Even when the selfish interests of the lawgivers are not advanced in this way, great caution ought to be had in incurring public debts, as too great facility in borrowing always leads to profusion in expenses. In addition to this, there is an important check on private debts which does not apply to public debts. A private man, when he incurs a debt, knows that he must not only pay the interest punctually, but that he will sooner or later be called upon for the principal. But if a government only pays the interest punctually, the principal may remain unpaid for ever.

"5. Nothing but violations of constitution, and violations of law, or gross frauds in the negotiation of public debts, will justify a repudiation of them. No matter how unwise it may have been to borrow it, and no matter how foolishly it may have been expended, if the money has been borrowed according to law and the constitution, it ought to be paid.

"6. There is no force in the observation that one generation is not bound by the debts of another. The property created by the industry of one generation, passes to that which succeeds it, and so on in perpetuity. The state never dies. The individuals that compose the state are always changing, just as the atoms of the human body are changing; and it is impossible to mark the succession of individuals that compose a state in such a way as to say that one class of them shall not be responsible for the debts incurred in the time of their predecessors. The benefits that may arise from incurring a public debt may extend through many generations. If the wars of William Pitt were really necessary to preserve the independence of Great Britain, it is just and right for the English people of the present day to pay the interest on the debt incurred in the prosecution of those wars. The Americans of the present generation have done no more than justice in paying off the debt of the Revolution, for they are in the full enjoyment of the blessings of the Revolution.

"7. After a government has once made a regular audit of a claim against it, and issued a negotiable acknowledgment of the same, it has no right in after years to re-open that audit. A negotiable evidence of public debt, no matter what its form may be, transfers all the rights of the original holder to the final possessor. This point was very clearly set forth by Mr. Sedgwick, of Massachusetts, in the debate in Congress, in February, 1790, on the funding of the Revolutionary debt.

"Whenever a voluntary engagement is made for a valuable consideration for property advanced, or services rendered, and the terms of the contract are understood, if no *fraud* or *imposition* is practised, the party engaging is bound to the performance according to the literal meaning of the words in which it is expressed."

A correct understanding of the nature of public debt, and of the obligation it imposes, is of great importance in a country where running into debt appears to be a leading principle not only of states and cities, but is becoming a leading principle with counties. Once duly impress the public mind with the doctrine that every public debt which has been *fairly* contracted, *must* be paid to the uttermost farthing, no matter what burden this may impose on the taxpayer, and we have a check against undue increase of public debt much more powerful than any mere paper constitution can impose.

The course taken by the legislature of the State of Texas in regard to the scaling or repudiating a portion of the debts of the republic, of which it is proposed in the course of this sketch to give some further account, is assailed by Mr. Gouge. The various arguments which have been employed in defence of this course, are met and examined with ability. He maintains with Mr. Sedgwick, in regard to the Revolutionary debts of the United States, that public obligations

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should be fulfilled according to the terms of the contract.

When the Texans began their revolutionary movement, they had no money, or none worth speaking of, but they drew freely upon their treasury, just as freely as they could have done, if it had been full of money. This continued till their "audited drafts," as they were called, sunk to fifteen cents in the dollar.

Then they commenced the issue of treasury notes, bearing ten per cent. interest. As these were for round sums, and many of them for small amounts, they were much better adapted than were the "audited drafts" to serve the purposes of a circulating medium. They accordingly sustained their credit much better, but as more were issued than the demands for currency could absorb, they sunk rapidly in value.

To these issues of treasury notes bearing interest, succeeded others bearing no interest, and familiarly known as "red backs," on account of a red impression on the back. These depreciated more rapidly than their predecessors.

The Texans tried to arrest the downward course of their audited drafts and their treasury notes, by various provisions for funding them in stocks bearing eight and ten per cent. interest. But as the audited drafts at first, and afterwards the treasury notes, had been made receivable for public dues, the whole of the revenue of the government was received in its own inconvertible paper. It consequently had not the means of paying the interest on its stocks, and the certificates thereof sunk as matter of necessity, in a ratio corresponding with the treasury notes and the audited drafts.

The Texans also sought to negotiate loans abroad, and with this view sent commissioners to the United States and afterwards to Europe. But all efforts to borrow in a *direct* way were unsuccessful, excepting some small loans obtained in the early part of the revolution from gentlemen of New-York and New-Orleans, and amounting in all to less than 70,000 dollars, and excepting a loan of $457,000 from the United States, and the obligations increased to the amount of about $750,000 to Messrs. Schott & Whitney of Philadelphia, Mr. Dawson of Baltimore, and Mr. Holford of London, for the purchase of the navy.

In an indirect way the amount the Texans borrowed was very large: for their treasury notes floated off to the United States, and were there exchanged for the munitions of war and the necessaries of life. Without the aid thus obtained, the revolution could not have been brought to a successful issue.

The result of all these different modes of borrowing was to bring the government in debt in the following amount, as stated by Mr. Chalmers, the Texan Secretary of the Treasury, in his report of Sept. 30th, 1841:

Audited drafts	$193,643 53
Treasury notes and bonds	4,381,004 64
Funded debt	1,672,300 00
Loan from U. S. Bank	457,380 00
Naval debt	1,000,000 00
Total	$7,704,328 17

This it will be observed was nearly four years before annexation was effected. The independence of the country had been acknowledged by the United States, and also by France, England, and Holland, but it was still disputed by Mexico. The crisis was a trying one. Up to this time all its revenue laws had yielded it only eight dollars in specie, and its credit was now entirely gone. In this emergency, the government resorted to an expedient which nothing could justify and which only sheer necessity could excuse. It suddenly declared that its treasury notes, which owed all the little value they had left to their being receivable for public dues, should be no longer so receivable. It then resorted to the issue of what were called "exchecquer bills." These were, in fact, only a new kind of treasury notes under a new name. But as the issue was limited to 200,000 dollars, and as there was never more than forty thousand dollars in circulation, at one time, and seldom so many, their credit was much better sustained than had been that of the "red backs." So little confidence, however, could the government inspire, that these exchecquer bills, limited though they were in amount, were seldom at par, and sunk sometimes to twenty-five cents on the dollar.

By this contrivance, however, the government, having disbanded its army, and laid up its navy in ordinary, managed to sustain itself for about three years, and till the annexation of Texas to the United States was effected.

By the resolution of annexation, it was

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among other things provided, that the State of Texas—

"Should retain all the vacant and unappropriated lands lying within its limits, to be applied to the payment of the debts and liabilities of said Republic of Texas; and *the residue* of said lands, after discharging said debts and liabilities, to be disposed of as said state may direct; but *in no event are said debts and liabilities to become a charge against the United States.*"

In this way the United States government sought to relieve itself from the liability it had incurred, according to the laws of nations and the principles of equity, on account of having absorbed the revenues which had been pledged for part of these debts; and the people of Texas, in convention assembled, fully and freely assented to this arrangement, by making the resolutions of annexation a part of their state constitution.

The first legislature of the State of Texas (an entirely distinct body from the Congress of the late Republic of Texas) assembled early in 1846, and determined that the debts of the late republic ought to be paid, but paid on principles which, as far as our knowledge extends, are entirely new in the history of finance. They determined that the debts should be paid, not as expressed in the contract, but according to an arbitrary standard adopted by the legislature of the state, as to the value the late republic was supposed to have received.

The second legislature, which assembled in 1847, maintained the grounds that had been assumed by the first, and passed an act thus "to scale" the debt. This act was perfectly understood in Texas; but as neither the words "scaling or scaled" appeared in either its title or any of its provisions, its true bearing was seen by but few of the creditors living beyond the bounds of the state. They supposed it to be what from its title it purported to be, simply "an act to provide for *ascertaining* the debt of the late Republic of Texas." One of the sections does indeed make it the "duty of the auditor and controller jointly to receipt for all claims presented to them, setting forth the par value thereof at the time the same accrued;" but, in common language, the par value of a negotiable security is its face value, and in this sense the phrase had been used in previous acts of Texas. They supposed the object was simply to *ascertain* the amount of the debt, by collecting together all the evidences thereof, and separating the genuine certificates from the counterfeits that were afloat. Nor did some of them discover their mistake till they received new certificates from the State of Texas, certifying that there was due to them only three-fourths, one-half, one-fourth, and, in some instances, no more than one-fifth, of the amount that had been expressed in the certificates that had been issued to them by the late republic.

Previous to this, however, some of the creditors had petitioned the Congress of the United States for relief. They maintained that however binding on Texas might be the provision in the articles of annexation, it did not release the United States government from the obligation it was under, to discharge the debts for which the revenues had been pledged, seeing that it had absorbed those very revenues. It had thereby left nothing to Texas but her wild lands, and wild lands are a poor fund out of which to discharge debts either public or private. They saw that Texas, having parted with her customs revenues, could not comply with the engagement she had entered into in the articles of annexation. At the very first session of Congress that followed the act of annexation, some of the creditors set this forth in their memorial; and as fast as the scaling policy of Texas began to be understood, the number of these memorials increased.

To relieve itself from these difficulties, and from other difficulties in which it found itself involved, the Congress of the United States passed an act on the 9th of September, 1850, commonly known as the "Boundary Act." In it it was, among other things, provided, that ten million dollars, in five per cent. stocks, should be passed over to Texas, nominally in payment for certain lands purchased from that state, but really with the intention that Texas should therewith pay the revenue creditors, and thereby relieve the United States from all responsibility it had incurred on account of the debts of the late republic. As a matter of precaution, it was made a condition, that only five million in these bonds should be passed over immediately to Texas, and that the residue of the bonds should be retained in the trea-

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sury at Washington, till releases should be signed by the creditors, exempting the United States from all further liability on account of the debts of the late republic.

Previous to the passage of the Boundary Act, or in December, 1849, the auditor and controller of Texas made a report to the legislature, in which they scaled the debt on the principles they had been directed to adopt. Two years afterwards, November 12th, 1851, they made another and more complete report, in which they represented the total debt to be as follows:—

	Original amount.	Scaled amount.
Claims filed, of all descriptions, including interest	$9,647,253 14	$4,807,764 37
Claims not filed, of all descriptions, including interest	2,789,736 20	2,019,514 27
Total	$12,436,991 34	$6,827,278 64

The amount of claims not filed, is to some extent conjectural, and now believed to be too large, by somewhere between half a million and a million of dollars. But this is not material. What is material is, that the legislature, on the 31st of January, 1852, passed an act in conformity with the principles of this report. Suffice it to say that the effect of the act was to divide the debt into two classes, debt payable and debt suspended; and the debt which was made payable immediately, embraced the following items:—

	Original amount.	Scaling rate.	Scaled amount.
Ten per cent. funded debt, created by act of Feb. 5, 1840	$750,000 00	$0 30	$226,200 00
Eight per ct. funded debt, created by act of Feb. 5, 1840	24,280 00	0 30	7,284 00
Audited paper issued under various enactments	74,441 26	various	69,451 12
Miscellaneous liabilities	26,129 87	1 00	26,129 87
Amount filed and receipted for as second class debts	748,899 99	various	679,222 50
Ditto third class debts, since recognized as second class	16,467 95	1 00	16,467 95
Amount audited by special acts	34,023 55	1 00	34,023 55
Total	$1,678,242 52		$1,058,778 99

These are the items of debt for which, according to the decision of Mr. Secretary Corwin and President Fillmore, the United States are in no way responsible, the customs revenue having not been pledged for their payment. The whole of them, with the exception of the eight and ten per cent. funded debts, are what are familiarly known as "the domestic debt" of Texas.

The payment of the residue of the debt being that for which, according to the decision of the United States authorities, the United States are responsible, was suspended. It consisted of the following items:—

	Original amount.	Scaling rate.	Scaled amount.
Ten per cent., consolidated fund, created by act of 7th of June, 1837	632,526 80	$0 70	$442,768 76
Ten per cent., consolidated fund, created by act of 7th of June, 1837, issued under an act created for relief of Swartwout and others	7,970 43	1 00	7,970 43
Eight per cent. treasury bonds, created by act of 5th of February, 1840	766,800 00	0 20	153,360 00
Ten per cent. treasury notes, issued under act of 9th of June, first issue	41,630 00	1 00	41,630 00
Ten per cent. treasury notes, issued under act of 9th of June, second issue	331,371 00	0 50	165,685 50
Treasury notes, without interest, issued under act of 19th of Jan., 1839, third issue	1,828,192 00	0 25	457,048 00
Ten per cent. bonds, issued by commissioners to negotiate a loan for $5.000,000, viz:			
For loan obtained from Bank of United States	457.380 00	—	400,000 00
For purchase of steamer Zavalla	195,907 00	0 50	90,014 84
For purchase of naval vessels under contract with F. Dunson, now owned by James Schott & E. D. Whitney	280,000 00	0 50	140,000 00
Total of debt suspended	$4,541,777 23		$1,898,477 53

It was provided that the payment of this amount, and of the interest thereon, should not be made, till the bonds reserved in the treasury of the United States should be paid over to Texas, or such portions thereof as might equal in amount the claims for which the creditors might sign the required releases.

While the legislature was yet in session, the controller of the state, who had been dispatched to Washington, returned with bonds to the amount of five

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millions, and the interest that had accrued thereon, amounting to $250,000, in gold.

By the Sinking Fund Act of the 14th of January, 1840, the proceeds of the public lands were solemnly pledged for he redemption of the debts of the republic. By the resolution of annexation, all the public lands were expressly reserved for the payment of these debts. The State of Texas disposed of part of these lands for ten million dollars, and received in hand five millions of the purchase-money. It applied part of this money to the payment of its "domestic creditors," a part to the payment of the current expenses of the State Government, but not one cent to the payment of debts for which the United States had become liable!

The effect of this act was to divide the creditors into two parties. One party, at the head of which was the Bank of the United States, whose debt had been scaled at high rates, united their efforts with those of the authorities of Texas to induce the United States to give up the reserved bonds. They would then receive their pay, some at par, some at 87, and some at 70 cents in the dollar. This was resisted by the other creditors, as thereby they would get only fifty, twenty-five, and in some instances no more than twenty per cent. of their claims.

The result is, that, up to the time in which we write, (February 21st, 1853,) the creditors of the late Republic of Texas, with claims upon two governments, which claims are to a certain extent recognized by both, are paid by neither.

All the facts connected with the origin and growth of the debt, embracing, of course, many of great interest and importance, which could not be introduced into this sketch, are set forth in the order of their occurrence, and with great clearness, in the volume the title of which is placed at the head of this article.

ART. VII.—PROGRESS OF THE REPUBLIC—CENSUS OF ONE THOUSAND EIGHT HUNDRED AND FIFTY.

(Continued from our last Number.)

WHEAT.—Wheat, where the soil and the climate are adapted to its growth, and the requisite progress has been made in its culture, is decidedly preferred to all other grains, and next to maize, is the most important crop in the United States, not only on account of its general use for bread, but for its safety and convenience for exportation. It is not known to what country it is indigenous, any more than our other cultivated cereals, all of which, no doubt, have been essentially improved by man. By some, wheat is considered to have been coeval with the creation, as it is known that upwards of a thousand years before our era it was cultivated, and a superior variety had been attained. It has steadily followed the progress of civilization from the earliest times, in all countries where it would grow.

The introduction of this grain into the North American colonies dates back to the earliest period of their settlement by Europeans. It was first sown, with other grains, on the Elizabeth Islands, in Massachusetts, by Gosnold, at the time he explored that coast, in 1602. In 1611, wheat, as well as other grains, was sown in Virginia, and by the year 1648 there were cultivated many hundred acres in that colony. Although premiums were offered as an encouragement of its growth in 1651, it was not much cultivated for more than a century after in consequence of the ill-directed attention to the culture of tobacco.

Wheat was introduced into the valley of the Mississippi by the "Western Company," in 1718, where, from the careless mode of cultivating it by the early settlers, and the sudden alternations of temperature, it would only yield from five to eightfold, running to straw and blade, without filling the ear. In 1746, however, the culture had so far extended, that six hundred barrels of flour were received at New-Orleans from the Wabash; and, by the year 1750, the French of Illinois raised three times as

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much wheat as they consumed, and large quantities of grain and flour were sent to the same place.

Prior to the revolution the primitive soils of New-York, New-Jersey, and of New-England, appear not to have rewarded the cultivation of this grain much, if any, beyond the wants of the inhabitants. Considerable quantities were raised on the Hudson, and in some parts of New-Jersey and Pennsylvania, which were exported to the West Indies and New-England, and to Great Britain, France, Portugal and Spain, in years of scarcity, previous to 1823.

In 1776, there was entailed upon this country an enduring calamity, in consequence of the introduction of the Hessian or wheat fly, which was supposed to have been brought from Germany in some straw, employed in the debarkation of Howe's troops on the west end of Long Island. From that point the insect gradually spread in various directions, at the rate of twenty or thirty miles a year, and the wheat of the entire regions east of the Alleghanies is now more or less infested with the larva, as well as in large portions of the states bordering on the Ohio and Mississippi, and on the great lakes; and so great have been the ravages of these insects, that the cultivation of this grain has in many places been abandoned.

The geographical range of the wheat region in the Eastern Continent and Australia, lies principally between the 30th and 60th parallels of north latitude, and between the 30th and 40th degrees south, being chiefly confined to France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, Sicily, Greece, Turkey, Russia, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Poland, Prussia, Netherlands, Belgium, Great Britain, Ireland, Northern and Southern Africa, Tartary, India, China, Australia, Van Dieman's Land, and Japan. Along the Atlantic portions of the Western Continent it embraces the tract lying between the 30th and 50th parallels, and in the country westward of the Rocky Mountains one or two more degrees further north. Along the west coast of South America, as as well as in situations within the Torrid Zone, sufficiently elevated above the level of the sea, and properly irrigated by natural or artificial means, abundant crops are often produced.

The principal districts of the United States in which this important grain is produced in the greatest abundance, and forms a leading article of commerce, embrace the states of New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, Ohio, Kentucky, Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, Wisconsin, and Iowa. The chief varieties cultivated in the Northern and Eastern States are the white flint, tea, Liberian, bald, Black sea, and the Italian spring wheat. In the Middle and Western States, the Mediterranean, the Virginia white May, the blue stem, the Indiana, the Kentucky white bearded, the old red chaff, and the Talavera. The yield varies from ten to forty bushels, and upwards, per acre, weighing per bushel from fifty-eight to sixty-seven pounds.

It appears that on the whole crop of the United States, there was a gain during the ten years of 15,645,378 bushels. The crop of New England decreased from 2,014,000 to 1,078,000 bushels, exhibiting a decline of 936,000 bushels, and indicating the attention of farmers has been much withdrawn from the culture of wheat. Grouping the states, from the Hudson to the Potomac, including the District of Columbia, it appears that they produced in 1849, 35,085,000 bushels, against 29,936,000 in 1839. In Virginia, there was an increase of 1,123,000 bushels. These states embrace the oldest wheat-growing region of the country, and that in which the soil and climate seem to be adapted to promote the permanent culture of the grain. The increase of production in ten years has been 6,272,000 bushels, equal to 15.6 per cent. The area of tilled land in these states is 36,000,000 acres, only thirty per cent. of the whole amount returned; while the proportion of wheat produced is forty-six per cent. In North Carolina there has been an increase of 170,000 bushels; but in the Southern States, generally, there was a considerable decrease. Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin, contributed to the general aggregate, under the sixth census, only 9,800,000 bushels; under the last, they are shown to have produced upwards of 25,000,000 bushels, an amount equal to the whole increase in the United States for the period.

When we see the growth of wheat keeping up with the progress of popu-

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lation in the oldest states of the union, we need have no apprehension of decline in the cultivation of this important crop.

The amount of flour exported from New-Jersey, in 1751, was 6.424 barrels. From Philadelphia, in 1752, 125,960 barrels, besides 86,500 bushels of wheat; in 1767, 198,816 barrels, besides 367,500 bushels of wheat; in 1771, 252,744 barrels. From Savannah, in 1771, 7,200 pounds. From Virginia, for some years annually, preceding the revolution, 800,000 bushels of wheat. The total exports of flour from the United States, in 1791, were 619,681 barrels, besides 1,018,339 bushels of wheat; in 1800, 653,052 barrels, besides 26,853 bushels of wheat; in 1810, 798,431 barrels, besides 325,924 bushels of wheat; in 1820-21, 1,056,119 barrels, besides 25,821 bushels of wheat; in 1830-31, 1,806,529 barrels, besides 408,910 bushels of wheat; in 1840-41, 1,515,817 barrels, besides 868,585 bushels of wheat; in 1845-46, 2,289,476 barrels, besides 1,613,795 bushels of wheat; in 1846-47, 4,382,496 barrels, besides 4,399,951 bushels of wheat; in 1850-51, 2,202,335 barrels, besides 1,026,725 bushels of wheat.

According to the census of 1840, the wheat crop of the United States was 84,823,272 bushels; in 1849, according to the census of 1850, 100,503,899 bushels, although in some of the largest wheat-growing states, the crops of 1849 fell far below the average.

In the state of Ohio, especially, there was great deficiency, and was made apparent by the returns of the wheat crop for the ensuing year—made in pursuance of an act of the legislature of that state. From the almost universal returns of "short-crop" by the marshals in that state, in 1849, which fell below that of 1839 two millions of bushels, and the ascertained crop of 1850, we are fully satisfied that the average wheat crop of Ohio would appear thirty per cent greater than shown by the census returns. The same causes which operated to diminish the wheat crop of Ohio, were not without their effects upon that of other states, bordering on the upper portion of the valley of the Mississippi.

In the London exhibition, very little wheat was exhibited equal to that from the United States, especially that from Genesee county, in the State of New-York—a soft, white variety, to the exhibiter of which a prize medal was awarded by the Royal Commissioners, and recently transmitted to Mr. Bell, by the President of the United States, the chairman of the Executive Committee in the United States. The red Mediterranean wheat, exhibited from the United States, attracted much attention. The wheat from South Australia was probably superior to any exhibited, while much from our own country fell but little behind, and was unquestionably next in quality.

Rye.—This grain is supposed to be a native of the Caspian Caucasian desert, and has been cultivated in the north of Europe and Asia from time immemorial, where it constitutes an important article of human subsistence, being generally mixed with barley or wheat. Its introduction into western Europe is comparatively of recent date, as no mention is made of it in the *Ortus Sanitatis*, published at Augsburg in 1485, which treats at length of barley, millet, oats and wheat.

Rye was cultivated in the North American colonies soon after their settlement by the English. Gorges speaks of it as growing in Nova Scotia in 1622 as well as of barley and wheat. Plantagenet enumerates it among the productions of North Virginia (New-England) in 1648, and alludes to the mixing of it with maize in the formation of bread. It was also cultivated in South Virginia, by Sir William Berkley, previous to that year.

Geographically, rye and barley associate with one another and grow upon soils the most analogous, and in situations alike exposed, It is cultivated for bread in northern Asia, and all over the continent of Europe, particularly in Russia, Norway, Denmark, Sweden, Germany and Holland, in the latter of which it is much employed in the manufacture of gin. It is also grown to some extent in England, Scotland and Wales. In this country it is principally restricted to the middle and eastern states, but its culture is giving place to more profitable crops.

The three leading varieties cultivated in the United States, are the spring, winter and southern, the latter differing from the others only from dissimilarity of climate. The yield varies from 10 to 30 or more bushels per acre, weighing from 48 to 56 pounds to the bushel. The production of rye has decreased

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4,457,000 bushels in the aggregate, but in New-York it is greater than in 1840 by about forty per cent. Pennsylvania, which is the largest producer, has fallen off from 6,613,373 to 4,805,160 bushels. Perhaps the general diminution in the quantity of this grain now produced may be accounted for by supposing a corresponding decline in the demand for distilling purposes, to which a large part of the crop is applied.

This grain has never entered largely into our foreign commerce, as the home consumption for a long period nearly kept pace with the supply. The amount exported from the United States in 1801, was 392,276 bushels; in 1812, 82,705 bushels; in 1813, 140,136 bushels. In 1820–21 there were exported 23,523 barrels of rye flour; in 1830–31, 19,100 barrels; in 1840–41, 44,031 barrels; in 1845–46, 38,530 barrels; in 1846–47, 48,892 barrels; in 1850–51, 44,152 barrels. During the year ending June 1, 1850, there were consumed of rye, about 2,144,000 bushels in the manufacture of malt and spirituous liquors.

According to the census returns of 1840, the product of the country was 18,645,567 bushels; in 1850, 14,188,637 bushels.

MAIZE, OR INDIAN CORN.—Among the objects of culture in the United States, maize, or Indian corn takes precedence in the scale of crops, as it is best adapted to the soil and climate, and furnishes the largest amount of nutritive food. When due regard is paid to the selection of varieties, and cultivated in a proper soil, it may be accounted as a sure crop in almost every portion of the habitable globe, between the forty-fourth degree of north latitude and a corresponding parallel south. Besides its production in this country, its principal culture is limited to Mexico, the West Indies, most of the States of South America, France, Spain, Portugal, Lombardy, and Southern and Central Europe generally. It is also cultivated with success in northern, southern and western Africa, India, China, Japan, Australia, and the Sandwich Islands, the groups of the Azores, the Madeiras, the Canaries, and numerous other ocean isles.

Although there has been much written on the eastern origin of this grain, it did not grow in that part of Asia watered by the Indus, at the time of Alexander the Great's expedition, as it is not among the productions of the country, mentioned by Nearchus, the commander of the fleet; neither is it noticed by Arian, Diodorus, Columella, nor any other ancient author; and even as late as 1491, the year before Columbus discovered America, Juan di Cuba, in his "Ortus Sanitatis," makes no mention of it. It has never been found in any ancient tumulus, sarcophagus, or pyramid; nor has it ever been represented in any ancient painting, sculpture, or work of art, except in America. But in this country, according to Garcilaso de la Vega, one of the ancient Peruvian historians, the palace gardens of the Incas in Peru were ornamented with maize, in gold and silver, with all the grains, spikes, stalks, and leaves; and, in one instance, in the "garden of gold and silver," there was an entire corn-field, of considerable size, representing the maize in its exact and natural shape—a proof no less of the wealth of the Incas, than their veneration for this important grain.

In further proof of the American origin, it may be stated that this plant is still found growing in a wild state, from the Rocky Mountains, in North America, to the humid forests of Paraguay, where, instead of having each grain naked, as is always the case after long cultivation, it is completely covered with glumes, or husks. It is, furthermore, a well authenticated fact, that maize was found in a state of cultivation by the aboriginies in the island of Cuba, on its discovery by Columbus, as well as in most other places in America, first explored by Americans.

The first successful attempt to cultivate this grain in North America by the English, occurred on James' river, in Virginia, in 1608. It was undertaken by the colonists sent over by the London company, who adopted the mode then practised by the natives, which, with some modifications, has been pursued throughout this country ever since. The yield, at that time, is represented to have been from two hundred to more than one thousand fold. The same increase was noted by the early settlers in Illinois. The present yield, east of the Rocky Mountains, when judiciously cultivated, varies from 20 to 135 bushels to an acre.

The varieties of Indian corn are very numerous, exhibiting every grade of size, color and conformation, between the "chubby reed" that grows on the shores

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of Lake Superior—the gigantic stalks of the Ohio Valley—the tiny ears, with flat, close, clinging grains, of Canada—the brilliant, rounded little pearl—the bright red grains and white cob of the eight-rowed hæmalite—the swelling ears of the big white and the yellow gourd seed of the South. From the flexibility of this plant, it may be acclimatized, by gradual cultivation, from Texas to Maine, or from Canada to Brazil; but its character, in either case, is somewhat changed, and often new varieties are the result. The blades of the plant are of great value as food for stock, and is an article but rarely estimated sufficiently, when considering the agricultural products of the southern and southwestern states especially.

The increase of production, from 1840 to 1850, was 214,000,000 bushels, equal to 56 per cent.

The production of New-England has advanced from 6,993,000 to 10,377,000 bushels, showing an increase of 3,384,000 bushels, nearly fifty per cent. New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware and Maryland, increased 20,812,000 bushels more than fifty per cent. In the production of this crop, no state has retrograded. Ohio, which, in 1840, occupied the fourth place as a corn-producing state, now ranks as the first. Kentucky is second, Illinois third, Tennessee fourth. The crop of Illinois has increased from 2,000,000 to 5,500,000 bushels, or at the rate of one hundred and sixty per cent. in ten years.

Of the numerous varieties some are best adapted to the Southern States, while others are better suited for the Northern and Eastern. Those generally cultivated in the former are the Southern big and small yellow, the Southern big and small white flint, the yellow Peruvian, and the Virginian white gourd seed. In the more Northerly and Easterly States, they cultivate the golden Sioux or Northern yellow flint, the King Philip or eight-rowed yellow, the Canadian early white, the Tuscarora, the white flour, and the Rhode Island white flint.

The extended cultivation of this grain is chiefly confined to the Eastern, Middle and Western States, though much more successfully grown in the latter. The amount exported from South Carolina, in 1748, was 39,308 bushels; from North Carolina, in 1753, 61,580 bushels; from Georgia, in 1755, 600 bushels; from Virginia, for several years preceding the revolution, annually 600,000 bushels; from Philadelphia, in 1765–66, 60,205 bushels; in 1771, 259,441 bushels.

The total amount exported from this country in 1770, was 578,349 bushels; in 1791, 2,064,936 bushels, 351,695 of which were Indian meal; in 1800, 2,032,435 bushels, 338,108 of which were in meal; in 1810, 1,140,960 bushels, 86,744 of which were meal. In 1820–21, there were exported 607,277 bushels of corn, and 131,669 barrels of Indian meal; in 1830–31, 571,312 bushels of corn, and 207,604 barrels of meal; in 1840–41, 535,727 bushels of corn, and 232,284 barrels of meal; in 1845–46, 1,286,068 bushels of corn, and 298,790 barrels of meal; in 1846–47, 16,326,050 bushels of corn, and 948,060 barrels of meal; in 1850–51, 3,426,811 bushels of corn, and 203,622 barrels of meal. More than eleven millions of bushels of Indian corn were consumed in 1850, in the manufacture of malt and spirituous liquors.

According to the census of 1840, the corn corp of the United States was 377,531,875 bushels; in 1850, 592,326,612 bushels.

Oats.—The oat, when considered in connection with the artificial grasses, and the nourishment and improvement it affords to live stock may be regarded as one of the most important crops we produce. Its history is highly interesting, from the circumstance that while in many portions of Europe it is formed into meal, it forms an important aliment for man; one sort at least has been cultivated from the days of Pliny, on account of its fitness as an article of diet for the sick. The country of its origin is somewhat uncertain, though the most common variety is said to be indigenous to the island of Juan Fernandez. Another oat, resembling the cultivated variety, is also found growing wild in California.

This plant was introduced into the North American Colonies soon after their settlement by the English. It was sown by Gosnold on the Elizabeth Islands in 1602; cultivated in Newfoundland in 1622; and in Virginia by Berkley, prior to 1648.

The oat is a hardy grain, and is suited to climates too hot and too cold either for wheat or rye. Indeed, its flexibility is so great, that it is cultivated with suc-

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cess in Bengal, as low as latitude twenty-five degrees north, but refuses to yield profitable crops as we approach the equator. It flourishes remarkably well when due regard is paid to the selection of varieties, throughout the inhabited parts of Europe, the northern and central portions of Asia, Australia, Southern and Northern Africa, the cultivated regions of nearly all North America, and a large portion of South America.

In this country the growth of the oat is confined principally to the Middle, Western and Northern States. The varieties cultivated are the common white, the black, the gray, the imperial, the Hopetown, the Polish, the Egyptian, and the potato oat. The yield of the common varieties varies from forty to ninety bushels and upwards, per acre, and weighing from twenty-five to fifty pounds to the bushel. The Egyptian oat is cultivated south of Tennessee, which, after being sown in autumn, and fed off by stock in winter and spring, yields from ten to twenty bushels per acre. In the manufacture of malt and spirituous liquors, oats enter but lightly, and their consumption for this purpose does not exceed 60,000 bushels annually in the United States.

The oat, like rye, never has entered much into our foreign commerce, as the domestic consumption has always been nearly equal to the quantity produced. The annual average exports for several years preceding 1817, were 70,000 bushels.

By the census returns of 1840 it will be seen that the total produce of the United States was 123,071,341 bushels; of 1850, 146,678,879 bushels.

ART. VIII.—COMMERCIAL GROWTH AND PROSPECTS OF ST. LOUIS.

THE GREAT CITIES OF AMERICA.

No. III.

[In volume 13th of the Review the reader will find elaborate articles upon the Commercial Progress of New-Orleans and Cincinnati, with much interesting material in regard to St. Louis. We continued our references to the great cities of the Union by the introduction of Boston into our March number, vol. 14th, and will follow it up with a regular series of similar papers.

Our present subject will be *St. Louis;* and having hitherto, in the Review and the *Industrial Resources*, discussed its early history and advancement, we complete the subject to date from the elaborate report, in pamphlet form, for 1852—3, made by A. B. Chambers, Esq., of the St. Louis Republican.]

St. Louis must at no distant day become important as a manufacturing city. The heaviest business in this department will doubtless be in iron. The state boasts of her *mountains* of ore, and the coal region is immediately at our doors. Within a few years past the articles made of iron have multiplied beyond any expectation. Railing, fencing for agricultural uses, window sash, door-fronts, columns, caps, telegraph wire, water pipe, are a few only of the uses to which the article has lately been applied; while speculation begins to whisper about entire buildings being constructed, and entire streets paved with it. Our shops already compete with the best artisans elsewhere for the manufacture of steam engines, and of every species of machinery. A connection with Pilot Knob and the Iron Mountain by railroad, will obviate at once the difficulty to an embarkation of the kind, by placing the ore at the furnace cheaply and expeditiously, and thus bringing into general use this great metal. Missouri contains thus, within her own bosom, an element of wealth that has not yet been brought into requisition, and which is destined at no distant day to give a strong and vigorous pulsation to her growth in wealth. Besides this, we have lead and copper ore in abundance, exhaustless, and second in quality to the yield of no

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other region. The tests made of the latter, recently, place it favorably, as regards purity, with the product of Lake Superior, while its contiguity to our city, its easy access to the line of the Pacific Rail-road, and the cheap mining requisite to obtain it, render an investment in its manufacture certainly profitable.

The principal deficit in the receipts of the year just closed, as compared with the previous one, will be found in hemp, lead, flour, wheat, corn, and oats; and the following table, compiled the present year, by the Secretary of the Exchange, will show particularly the relative imports of the two seasons of the principal products of the country.

	1851.	1852.
Tobacco.....hhds..	10,371 ...	14,053
" .....bxs..	8,380....	12,388
" .....bales..	——	300
Hemp ..... " ..	65,366....	49,122
Lead.....pigs..	503,571....	409,314
Flour .....bbls..	193,892....	130,332
Wheat..... ....bush..	1,700,708....	1,591,886
Corn .....sacks..	1,840,900....	344,720
Oats..... " ..	794,421....	323 081
Barley and Malt..... " ..	101,674....	47,264
Beef.....bbls..	8,872....	11,165
" .....tierces..	5,640....	6,546
Pork.....bbls..	103,013....	66,306
" .....tierces..	15,793....	2,704
Lard.....bbls & tcs..	52,208....	42,515
" .....kegs..	14,450....	11,815
Bacon.....cks & hhds..	16,791....	11,285
" .....bbls & bxs..	1,564....	1,790
" .....pieces..	6,629....	18,809
Whisky.....bbls..	47,991....	46,446
Hides.....	99,736....	97,148
Bagging.....pieces..	2,746....	3,650
Bale Rope .....coils..	34,088....	42,121
Sugar..... ..hhds..	29,276....	35,283
" .....bbls & bxs..	36,687....	27,672
" .....bags..	——	31,745
Coffee.....sacks..	101,904....	96,240
Molasses.....hhds & bbls..	40,251....	54,935
Salt.....bbls..	46,250....	42,281
" .....sacks..	216,933....	266,616
Nails..... .....kegs..	57,862....	42,201

By the above statement it will be observed that in nearly all the staples of the country, the receipts of this year are far below those of last. The table is not as full, and, we fear, as accurate as the importance of the subject demands; but with such data as we have, it is presented.

HEMP.—The relative prices of the two seasons, given monthly, are as follows:

	1851.	1852.
January.....	$85 to $110	$75 to $92
February	80 to 105	75 to 90
March.....	85 to 95	60 to 85
April	70 to 90	60 to 75
May.....	70 to 85	62 to 78
June.....	75 to 82	72 to 82
July	75 to 95	72 to 85
August	80 to 95	68 to 87
September	80 to 90	83 to 91
October.....	75 to 85	88 to 100
November.....	75 to 85	92 to 100
December.....	78 to 92	88 to 107

The disparity which is shown in the range for the year just closed, must be traced to the extremes of qualities in the product, which may be classed as common and prime. At the beginning of the fall, as the stock became diminished, the better grades ruled high, and the year closed with the staple firm at the figures given.

Monthly statement of the receipts of hemp for the years 1851 and 1852:

	1851.	1852.
January.....	27.....	17
February.....	1,078..	312
March.....	4,796.....	5,745
April.....	9,461.....	4,737
May.....	12,142.....	7,539
June.....	12,094.....	6,712
July.....	6,350.....	8,387
August.....	8,660.....	6,311
September.....	7,894.....	3,057
October.....	2,292.....	1,717
November.....	438.....	1,030
December.....	264.....	254
Total.....	65,366.....	48,818

The receipts of 1847 were 72,222 bales; of 1848, 47,270; of 1849, 46,290; of 1850, 60,862.

BALE-ROPE AND BAGGING.—The receipts of bale-rope during the year 1851, were 34,088 coils; this year 41,674 —leaving a difference in favor of this season's operations of 7,586 coils. The pieces of bagging for 1851, were 2,746; for 1852, 3,650—amount in favor of this year, 904 pieces.

TOBACCO.—The sales at our warehouses, for the year just closed, exhibit an excess on the operations of the preceding year, of 3,096 hhds. The following table shows the transactions at the Planters' and State Tobacco Warehouses for the past seven years, from 1846 to 1852, inclusive:

	Planters'.	State Wareh'se.
1846.....2,573 hhds.....	971 hhds.	
1847.....3,854 "	1,235 "	
1848.....3,184 "	1,083 "	
1849.....4,982 "	867 "	
1850.....4,169 "	62 "	
1851..... .....4,195 "	796 "	
1852.....5,776 "	2,311 "	

The large increase in the inspection and sale of tobacco, at this point, the present over any former year, is in a great measure to be attributed to the high prices that have ruled in this market in comparison with others, and which prices have induced stemmers to dispose of their lugs here rather than forward them to other places as had heretofore been their general custom.

The sales in our own market during the embraced year, show the following gratifying result:

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	Lugs, factory.	Planters' factory.	Leaf, inferior to common.	Fair to fine.	Choice and selections.	Manufacturing.
January	none.	2 *a* 2½	2½ *a* 3	3 *a* 4	4 *a* 5	none.
February	"	2 *a* 2½	2½ *a* 3	3 *a* 4	4 *a* 5	"
March	"	2½ *a* 2¾	2¾ *a* 3¼	3¼ *a* 4	4 *a* 5	5 *a* 6
April	2¼ *a* 2½	2½ *a* 3	3 *a* 3½	3½ *a* 4	4 *a* 5	5 *a* 9
May	2¼ *a* 2½	3½ *a* 3	3 *a* 3½	3½ *a* 4	4 *a* 5	5 *a* 15
June	2¾ *a* 3	3 *a* 3½	3½ *a* 8¾	2¾ *a* 4	4 *a* 5	6 *a* 15
July	2¾ *a* 3	3 *a* 3½	3½ *a* 3¾	3¾ *a* 4	4 *a* 5	6 *a* 15
August	2 *a* 3½	3½ *a* 4	4 *a* 4¾	5 *a* 5¾	5¾ *a* 6½	6 *a* 15
September	3½ *a* 4¼	4 *a* 4½	4½ *a* 5	5 *a* 5¼	5¼ *a* 5¾	6 *a* 15
October	3½ *a* 4	4 *a* 4½	4½ *a* 5	5 *a* 5¼	5¼ *a* 5¾	6 *a* 12
November	3½ *a* 3¾	3¾ *a* 4¼	4¼ *a* 4¾	4¾ *a* 5	5 *a* 5¼	6 *a* 12
December	none.	¾ *a* 3¾	3¾ *a* 4	4 *a* 4¼	4¼ *a* 4¾	6 *a* 12

MANUFACTURED TOBACCO.—A few years since a strong prejudice existed against western-manufactured tobacco, and the progress of the trade was considerably retarded in consequence; but more recently this feeling has given way, and each season witnesses a further improvement in this branch of industry. This city has now ten establishments, some of them on a large scale. Our manufactured tobacco, of medium and good qualities, is as good as, if not superior to, the Virginia, and some of the fine equal to the best imported. All that is wanting fully to develop the business is, that our merchants and dealers generally should encourage the manufacturers by purchasing at home, and thus give our own industry a fair chance. Prices have ruled from 5 cents a pound for the lowest grade of country brands, to 10 and 15 for the best. City-manufactured from 10, for common, to 14 and 18 for medium, and 22 to 25 for fine, at which rates the article is now firm, with a good prospect of remaining so. The year's operations reach about 8,000 packages, consuming 700 hhds. of the raw material. The increase in the country manufactures this year has been large.

LEAD.—The operations of the season show a falling off in this product. A decline has been perceptible in the yield of the upper mines for the last six years, which is thus stated by a gentleman intimately acquainted with the subject:

Pigs of 70 lbs. produced in	1847	778,469
" "	1848	681,969
" "	1849	628,934
" "	1850	568,300
" "	1851	472,608
" "	1852	400,000

The amount of the year just closed is known up to the 25th November, and from that date to the close of December, the yield is estimated.

The causes to which this deficit is traceable, as shown by the writer alluded to, are, 1st. The number of the mining population which the California emigration has carried off, amounting to at least one half. 2d. The failures in sinking for ores below the water-level in the small beds of rock. 3d. The mining population being citizens of foreign birth, who take no interest in mining except for wages. 4th. Want of sufficient economical machinery to drain the wet grounds. 5th. Want of a sufficient capital, and more general knowledge of the geology of the lead basins.

Although such a decrease is exhibited, the price of lead has been steadily advancing. In 1847, on the levee at Galena, the rate was $3 60 per 100 lbs., while during the year just closed the article commanded an advance of $4 10.

The deficit in the receipts at this port as compared with the preceding year, (1851,) is over 99,000 pigs, and the price at which the article ranged during the year was as follows: From the first of January to near the close of March, $4 25, when it fell to $4 20, and at the commencement of April declined to $4 10; about the middle of April it rose to $4 15, and continued gradually rising until the latter part of May, when it attained to $4 50; from this time until the last of June, it alternately stood at $4 45, and $4 50, and in July fell to $4 30, and $4 35, and thus remained till the middle of August, when it ruled at $4 40; in the early part of September it commenced a permanent rise, and at the close of that month stood at $4 50, which position it occupied until the middle of November, when it went up to $4 75. During the early part of the month of December it ruled firmly at $4 87½; and toward the middle and close, at $5 00, and $5 25, at which price, our report closes with a decided upward tendency.

FLOUR.—The receipts per river for 1851, were 184,446 bbls; this year 131,-

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333—difference 53,113. Received by wagons this year, as reported by five houses in the city, (the only houses that received in this way to any extent,) 89,-461 bbls.; last year, as reported in the annual statement, 45,000--difference 44,-461. The comparative statement of the two years may be thus made:

	1851.	1852.
Manufactured by City Mills	408,099	393,184
Receipts per river	184,446	131,333
Receipts per wagons	45,000	89,461
Total	638,545	613,978
Deficit the present year	24,567 bbls.	

The following table of the monthly prices of the two seasons has been compiled with a view to as much accuracy as our means would admit:

	1851.	1852.
January	$3 87 *a* 4 50	$3 75 *a* 4 00
February	3 75 *a* 4 60	3 75 *a* 3 87½
March	3 60 *a* 4 50	3 65 *a* 3 75
April	3 50 *a* 4 50	3 50 *a* 3 75
May	3 50 *a* 4 50	3 55 *a* 3 75
June	3 60 *a* 4 50	3 75 *a* 4 00
July	3 75 *a* 4 50	3 25 *a* 3 35
August	3 75 *a* 4 50	3 60 *a* 3 65
September	3 60 *a* 4 37	3 35 *a* 3 50
October	3 50 *a* 4 50	3 40 *a* 3 60
November	3 40 *a* 4 50	3 65 *a* 3 90
December	3 75 *a* 4 75	4 00 *a* 4 50

St. Louis brands have always stood high in distant markets, and they yet maintain their superiority; but the high prices at which grain has ruled this season, and the low rates of flour, have had a tendency to relax the rule of our millers, and induce them to work up less wheat than is their practice.

WHEAT.—The decline in receipts at this port have been steady since 1849. In 1850, they amounted to 1,808,817 bushels; in 1851, to 1,665,347, and this year, to 1,591,886. In 1847 and 1848, the receipts were 2,432,377 and 2,194,-789 bushels. Our mills were arranged for such receipts as these last exhibit, and are capable of turning out over 3,000 barrels per day. No doubt a large portion of the deficit here exhibited, in the recept of grain, has been diverted from this point through other channels of trade, and country mills, as the statistics would lead us believe, are enlarging and extending their business. Whatever the cause may be, the effect is apparent, that, as a grain market, St. Louis is becoming yearly less and less important. The amount in the hands of millers at this time, does not exceed 65,000 to 70,-000 bushels, which, allowing 4½ bushels to the barrel of flour, superfine and extra, is equal to 15,554 barrels, taking the highest figure. The comparative prices for the past two years may be thus given:

	1851.	1852.
January	75 *a* 80½	70 *a* $0 85
February	70 *a* 80	62 *a* 0 85
March	70 *a* 80	65 *a* 0 80
April	60 *a* 80	55 *a* 0 80
May	70 *a* 85	70 *a* 0 81
June	65 *a* 78	75 *a* 0 82
July	65 *a* 80	65 *a* 0 70
August	70 *a* 80	62 *a* 0 79
September	55 *a* 70	69 *a* 0 75
October	70 *a* 76	70 *a* 0 75
November	70 *a* 75	65 *a* 0 75
December	75 *a* 82	85 *a* 1 00

CORN.—In 1850 and 1851, the receipts of corn were liberal, and exceeded to a considerable amount those of previous years, with the exception of 1847. This year, the deficit shows a large falling off. The following table, embracing the years mentioned, is given:

1847	1,016,308 bushels.
1848	639,639 "
1849	305,864 "
1850	1,043,526 "
1851	1,791,100 "
1852	677,000 "

Several reasons have been advanced to account for this falling off, and among them may be noticed the conversion of a large portion of grain into pork, the drought of the growing season, and the difficulty of reaching this market. But we think, along with these reasons, no considerable quantities have found their way to the lake. It is stated, that from a point on the Illinois river, grain can be shipped to Chicago as cheaply and expeditiously as to this point, and that from Chicago to New-York the transportation does not exceed the charges from New-Orleans to New-York. If this be true, Chicago has the advantage of the amount of freight between St. Louis and New-Orleans—no inconsiderable item of expenditure in the transportation of an article of the kind. Our object is to speak of the commercial character of this city as the statistics require us, and in doing so it is necessary to say, that other points are successfully contending for an important portion of our receipts, and as the result seems to show, most successfully. We give the rates of the two past years:

	1851.	1852.
January	44 *a* 48	38 *a* 4
February	41 *a* 46	30 *a* 4
March	35 *a* 40	32 *a* 3
April	35 *a* 40	33 *a* 3
May	34 *a* 38	30 *a* 4

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	1851.	1852.
June	33 *a* 36	35 *a* 44
July	38 *a* 43	35 *a* 48
August	35 *a* 40	40 *a* 45
September	35 *a* 38	40 *a* 45
October	35 *a* 40	40 *a* 45
November	31 *a* 36	43 *a* 50
December	36 *a* 40	41 *a* 43

As far as can be ascertained there is but little corn on the market at this time.

OATS.—The receipts of 1851 were 794,431 bushels against 697,432 for the previous year; this year the receipts dwindle to 338,502 sacks or 677,000 bushels. The stock on hand is trifling.

WHISKY.—As compared with the receipts of 1851, this year shows a falling off of 1,545 bbls. The imports of the two seasons, as stated, are 47,991, and 46,446. With regard to the amount manufactured in the city, we are unable to give a reliable statement. It is represented by distillers as short of last year's operations, and we should suppose, from the light receipts of corn, that such is the case.

Comparative prices of the two years:

	1851.	1852.
anuary	22 *a* 23	16 *a* 18
February	22½ *a* 23½	15¾ *a* 16
March	20 *a* 21	15½ *a* 16½
April	18¾ *a* 19	15½ *a* 15¾
May	19 *a* 19¼	15½ *a* 17
June	20½ *a* 21	16 *a* 17¾
July	18¾ *a* 19	16½ *a* 17½
August	19½ *a* 19⅝	17 *a* 20
September	21¾ *a* 22	18½ *a* 19
October	20 *a* 20¼	16 *a* 18½
November	20½ *a* 21	18¼ *a* 20
December	21½ *a* 22	19¾

The above statement of the amount of receipts differs with some other tables. Taking the data of last year in our possession, the result cannot be otherwise stated. The great deficit in corn would seem to lead to the same conclusion.

PROVISIONS.—The price of provisions ruled high for a greater part of the year. At the opening of the pork season, hogs brought $4 30 and $4 35 net, upon which an advance was effected, before the close, to $4 75 and $4 85. At these rates our operators did not enter the business as deeply as they had done the preceding season. The ascertained amount of pork cut in the country was 1,398,846 hogs, against 1,662,187 the year before; showing a deficit of 263,341 head, of which deficit this point bore, for its share, 43,000. On the 1st of January, mess pork commanded $12 50, and at the close of the month $13 was obtained. It rose gradually through the month of February, and on the 1st of March quotations were reported as high as $14; at the beginning of April it reached $15 50, and at the close of that month $16 50, at which it remained, with occasional slight variations, until the middle of June, when it attained $18; early in July it brought $19, and about the middle of August reached its maximum of $20, which was maintained until the stock in this city, and subject to the city orders, was almost entirely exhausted. In October a depression in the South was felt here, but few, if any, operations were affected by it. The decline was but for a short period; for almost upon the advent of the present season the article rose again in the South to near its former position, and our market opened with the new crop at $16 50. Through the summer and fall, hams and lard kept pace with barreled meats, and maintained their rates until the close of the season; but shoulders and sides, after attaining to 8½ and 10½, declined about the commencement of the fall, and went down to 5¾ and 7½. The transactions of the year, with the exception of those in baconed shoulders and sides, show favorably to operators. The reason for the permanent decline in the products named, must be found in the large quantities thrown in from different points on the markets below, and the comparatively small demand which existed. There was no real cause for the high rates at which shoulders and sides were held, and the advance upon them may be attributed altogether to a speculative feeling among western operators, and by which many of these operators sustained heavy losses. A greater proportion of meats had been baconed than usual, induced by the belief that it would prove more profitable — a belief predicated upon the prices which ruled at the close of the previous season. The use of hams is general; their range of quality, from common to fancy sugar-cured, is within the reach of nearly all classes; the poor prefer them, in their plainest state, to shoulders or sides, and the wealthy care but little for the enhancement in the prices superinduced by superiority of curing and preserving; and hence, as we have said, their consumption is general, and every year this consumption appears to be on the increase. The manufacture of lard oil is rapidly extending. This article is now used on

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machinery of every description, and its consumption by the railways alone is immense. With these demands, hams and lard maintained their stand; but sides and shoulders, used only by a class or two, were unable to recover from their depression. At the close of the season, holders had worked off nearly the whole of their stock, and at the the beginning of operations about the middle of November, there was but little on the market. This little left received an advantage from the high rates which new products commanded —and old shoulders, at the close, realized 6 @ 6½, sides 8 @ 8½.

Beef and Cattle.—For the packing of beef this market has never been very remarkable, operators preferring to send the article off on hoof rather than in barrels. The whole season, perhaps, will not show beyond 3,000 barrels. The receipts at this point are generally forwarded, and the article is but rarely resorted to in the way of speculation. In lieu of this, however, we claim St. Louis as one of the greatest points for the shipment of cattle in the west. It is difficult to state with any great accuracy the number of head which have been shipped south the past year. From the best information to be obtained, we put the amount down at 300 per week, making over 15,000. It is the shipping demand which precludes, in a great measure, the packing of the article. This demand keeps the price too high for a successful competition with the packing operations at other points. The emigration across the plains employed a large number of our best cattle, and of course restricted trade to a considerable extent. The year closes with the market high, $5 50 for choice qualities, and with but comparatively few in the region from which our yards are supplied. The only sales of barreled beef reported at this point have been prime at $9 25.

Sugar.—The receipts this year have been 35,276 hhds., and 27,672 barrels and boxes, against 29,276 hhds., 20,854 barrels, and 15,833 boxes last. The year closes with a larger amount on hand than usual, the sudden close of navigation having prevented expected sales. Prices rule low at this time, barely covering cost and charges, and in some instances hardly doing that. The city consumption has increased materially, and the country demand is also enlarging. This will account for the heavy receipts somewhat; but the full crop this year must be taken, in this view, into consideration. We quote common to prime, as the closing rates of the season, at from 3½ to 5c.

The following is a statement of sugars received at Belcher's refinery in 1852, and refined during the year:—

		Received.	Refined.	On hand Jan. 1st, 1853.
Havana sugars	boxes	17,521	16,553	985
New-Orleans and Cuba sugars	hhds.	9,740	7,658	2,082
" " "	bbls.	3,397	2,987	410
Cistern sugars	"	9,980	9,470	510
Manilla and Brazil sugars	bags	34,621	29,848.	4,773

During same time refined over of molasses and cane syrup 10,567 barrels. Number of packages of refined sugars, syrups, and molasses, turned out during the year, 103,550.

Molasses.—Receipts for the year, 54,934 hhds. and barrels, against 40,231 barrels last. Plantation is now selling at 26c., and the market represented dull.

Coffee.—As compared with the imports of 1851, the present season shows an increase of over 6,000 sks. This is not as large a difference as existed between the receipts of 1850 and 1851—the difference being in favor of the latter year of over 28,000 sks. The stock on hand at this time is represented as not large, and the year closes with the article at 9⅝ @ 9¾c. for Rio.

Salt.—Receipts of Kanawha, 42,281 barrels, against 30,591 last year. The reduction of this article to 25c. opened a much larger market, and we presume the enhanced sales are to be attributed in a good degree to this cause. Of salt in sacks, embracing L. B., T. I. and G. A., our receipts foot up 266,622 sacks, against 252,855 sacks last year. This is a large increase. The prices, by reason of this increase, have fallen, and the year closes with Turk's island at 65c., and ground alum at $1 05 @ $1 10. The receipts of sacks this year is less 2,400 than that of 1850.

Lumber.—The following table of the monthly receipts of lumber, within the limits of the corporation. has been furnished by Mr. Ferguson, lumber-master of the city.

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A TABLE,

Showing the monthly arrivals of Steamboats and Barges, Keel and Flatboats, with their respective Tonnage, Wharfage, Harbor Master's Fees, &c., for the years 1851 *and* '52.

Months.	Arrivals of steamboats and barges. 1851.	1852.	Arrivals of keel and flatboats. '51.	'52.	Tonnage of steamboats and barges. 1851.	1852.	Wharfage. 1851.	1852.	Harbor Master's fees. 1851.	1852.	Paid into City Treasury. 1851.	1852.
January	112	55	2	—	23,942	16,430	$1,777 95	$1,236 65	$106 65	$ 74 22	$1,670 87	$1,162 73
February	154	194	1	—	29,013	42,085	2,002 17	2,909 04	120 13	174 54	1,882 04	2,734 50
March	554	249	4	—	71,819	60,706	5,630 49	4,289 61	337 83	257 37	5,292 66	4,032 24
April	315	316	5	—	73,069	76,981	5,048 94	5,591 68	302 94	355 50	4,746 00	5,256 18
May	414	399	13	1	98,371	99,979	6,974 42	7,154 18	418 46	429 25	6,555 66	6,724 93
June	210	288	2	—	57,938	75,231	3,066 85	5,945 27	184 01	356 71	2,882 84	5,558 56
July	162	287	—	—	40,273	72,885	2,493 91	4,899 00	149 63	293 04	2,344 28	4,606 56
August	269	213	1	—	62,482	47,414	4,809 99	3,471 33	288 00	208 28	4,521 39	3,263 10
September	258	305	7	—	59,066	55,206	4,132 72	3,926 35	249 96	226 58	3,884 76	3,699 77
October	244	367	1	—	57,729	71,958	4,132 49	5,758 10	249 95	309 48	4,849 55	4,848 62
November	347	291	7	—	73,441	62,558	5,159 09	4,863 55	309 54	291 81	2,752 80	4,571 74
December	164	223	—	—	35,637	58,814	2,820 45	3,836 67	175 65	230 20	45,266 69	3,606 47
Total	3,003	3,187	43	1	683,140	735,244	$48,156 04	$53,381 78	$2,892 35	$3,187 88	$45,266 69	$50,094 40

Tonnage.—The table of arrivals at this port, of steamers for the present year, shows an increase over those of the last. As this is an important portion of our report, evidencing the progress of the commercial relations of the city, as they are yearly extended, and marking, to a good degree, the improvement of the country, from which the principal products are received, we have compiled, with as much accuracy as could be obtained, the following table, embracing a period of three years.

Months.	Lumber.	Shingles.	Laths.	Cooper stuff.
January	202,120	—	—	—
February	—	—	—	50,000
March	494,906	529,000	—	169,100
April	866,874	114,000	—	273,053
May	1,227,667	1,988,000	—	162,956
June	2,176,169	1,496,000	31,000	89,965
July	2,087,340	680,500	—	10,000
August	687,208	585,000	—	15,099
September	1,005,547	—	—	168,788
October	503,816	28,000	—	116,000
November	192,974	697,000	—	161,000
December	2,664 Rail-road Ties.			

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT,

Showing the Monthly Arrivals of Steamboats at the Port of St. Louis, from New-Orleans, the Ohio, Illinois, Upper Mississippi, Missouri, and Cumberland Rivers, Cairo, and other Points, during the years 1850, '51, *and* '52.

Months.	New-Orleans. '50.	'51.	'52.	Ohio River. '50.	'51.	'52.	Illinois River. '50.	'51.	'52.	Upper Miss. '50.	'51.	'52.	Missouri River. '50.	'51.	'52.	Cumberland. '51.	'52.	Cairo. '50.	'51.	'52.	Other points. '50.	'51.	'52.
January	18	20	20	12	8	12	12	23	1	—	10	1	1	—	2	5	1	13	7	10	6	18	8
February	35	54	24	26	20	25	55	36	88	13	12	17	7	—	7	2	3	9	5	21	9	12	7
March	45	29	27	64	35	47	91	78	80	80	65	45	35	32	34	7	3	12	2	17	10	33	6
April	27	31	32	61	46	64	70	63	78	60	65	72	58	28	37	6	4	12	6	18	18	19	12
May	20	40	37	47	47	74	69	78	94	76	87	82	57	46	57	12	7	6	17	25	21	26	23
June	24	25	25	52	34	44	83	37	73	78	55	57	42	48	38	3	4	8	5	27	17	8	21
July	12	13	35	32	28	35	56	30	72	49	48	77	32	22	23	—	1	3	9	20	12	6	14
August	23	23	21	28	40	34	75	61	37	48	51	56	45	35	27	5	2	3	11	18	33	21	18
September	15	22	22	36	32	42	63	54	78	63	63	80	45	34	26	2	1	—	20	22	33	13	33
October	20	27	34	40	37	55	63	52	94	59	56	101	26	35	34	—	3	4	15	20	26	7	27
November	36	29	26	65	47	40	98	83	97	81	77	68	32	25	19	—	1	1	13	16	18	7	22
December	28	19	27	30	30	48	53	39	66	28	29	49	10	5	13	1	2	4	9	7	12	5	10
Total	301	300	330	493	401	520	788	634	858	635	639	705	390	301	317	43	30	75	119	223	215	175	201

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The tonnage of this port has been considerably increased, and as freights were scarce, charges have ruled unusually low during the year. There have been added to our list, within the past twelve months, several boats, which, for dimension, power, swiftness and elegance of finish, are hardly surpassed on the western waters. One of these was built at Hannibal, and equipped, and furnished at this point, and although, as yet, she has made but a trip or two to New-Orleans, and has not fully tested her capacity, she has already established a high character for our artisans in naval architecture, machinery and embellishment. There can be no doubt, that with rail-road communication to the iron mountains and the oak forests of the state, our docks and machine shops will be enabled to exhibit as well-built vessels, propelled by engines as perfect, and all furnished as cheaply as any other point in the west.

CUSTOM-HOUSE REPORT.—Through the politeness of Mr. GREENE, Surveyor of the Port, we are enabled to lay before the public the following statement. We annex in a parallel column the figures of 1851:

ST. LOUIS, January 3, 1853.

Messrs. CHAMBERS and KNAPP:

Gentlemen: I herewith give you a statement of some of the particulars and results of the business of the custom-house during the past year:

	1852.	1851.
The foreign value of goods, wares, and merchandise, imported into St. Louis from foreign countries, and entered for consumption at this port in 1852	$954,956 00	$757,509 00
Foreign value of merchandise remaining in public store on 31st Dec., ult.	11,566 00	8,261 89
The foreign value of merchandise entered at other ports for transportation hither, but not yet received, estimated	72,951 00	107,902 00
Total	$1,039,473 00	
Of the above-mentioned goods, wares, and merchandise, entered for consumption in 1852, the imports were from the following countries:—From		
England, the foreign value of which was	$431,343 00	$406,113 00
France	75,258 00	38,404 00
Germany and Holland	22,695 00	23,239 00
Spain and Dependencies	262,886 00	220,770 00
Brazil	93,086 00	68,983 00
Manilla (E. I.)	62,963 00	
Other countries	6,705 00	
Total	$954,946 00	$757,509 00
The general descriptions of merchandise imported and entered for consumption are, viz: sugar and molasses, foreign cost	$413,172 00	$289,753 00
Hardware, cutlery, &c	118,276 00	133,401 00
Rail-road iron	132,894 00	100,211 00
Earthen and glassware	80,729 00	98,786 00
Tin-plate, tin, iron, copper, &c	59,826 00	31,482 00
Dry goods and fancy goods	110,814 00	24,287 00
Brandies, wines, gins, cordials, &c.	32,985 00	24,712 00
Burr stones	420 00	2,257 00
Drugs and medicines	756 00	2,618 00
Cigars	5,773 00	
Total	$954,946 00	$757,509 00
Amounts of duties on imports collected	$290,168 85	$239,318 68
Hospital moneys	3,129 89	2,941 03
Total amount collected in 1852	$293,298 74	
Amount expended in 1852 for relief of sick and distressed seamen	3,162 01	$5,441 44
Tonnage on steam vessels remaining on 31st December, 1852		36,372 00

Respectfully, your obedient servant,

W. W. GREENE.

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ART. IX.—COMMERCIAL PROGRESS—HOME AND FOREIGN.

UNITED STATES COMMERCE, 1852—COMMERCIAL STATISTICS, U. S.—COPPER OF MICHIGAN—COMMERCE OF NORTH-WEST—NEWSPAPERS IN U. S.—SHIPWRECKS ON THE FLORIDA COASTS—ADVANCES OF GEORGIA—LEAD RESOURCES OF NORTH-WEST—STATISTICS OF WEALTH—TAXATION AND INDEBTEDNESS OF NEW-YORK AND NEW-ORLEANS—OIL BUSINESS OF THE U. S.—MINT OF THE U. S.—COMMERCE OF CHARLESTON—COMMERCE OF RICHMOND—NEW-YORK STEAMSHIPS.

SINCE the appearance of our last number, the Secretary of the Treasury has published his annual report of the commerce and navigation, etc., of the United States, for the commercial year which closed on the 30th June last. We will in our next make an analysis of it similar to those which were made by us of the reports of the other departments of government. Meanwhile the following statistics from the volume may be of value to our readers.

Statement exhibiting the value of certain articles imported during the year ending on the 30th of June, 1845, 1846, 1851, 1852, (after deducting the re-exportations,) and the amount of duty which accrued on each during the same period, respectively:—

	1845.		1846.	
	Value.	Duties.	Value.	Duties.
Woolens	$10,504,423	$3,731,014	$9,985,925	$3,480,797
Cottons	13,360,729	4,908,272	12,857,422	4,365,483
Hempen goods	801,661	198,642	696,888	138,394
Iron and manufactures of	4,075,142	2,415,003	3,660,581	1,629,581
Sugar	4,049,708	2,555,074	4,397,239	2,713,876
Hemp, unmanufactured	140,372	55,122	180,220	62,282
Salt	883,359	678,069	748,566	509,244
Coal	187,962	130,221	336,691	254,149

	1851.		[1852.]	
	Value.	Duties.	Value.	Duties.
Woolens	$19,239,930	$5,331,600	$17,348,184	$4,769,083
Cottons	24,486,502	5,348,695	18,716,741	4,895,327
Hempen goods	615.339	123,048	344,777	68,755
Iron and manufactures of	10,780,312	3,234,094	18,843,569	5,682,484
Sugar	13,478,709	4,043,613	13,977,393	4,193,218
Hemp, unmanufactured	212,811	63,843	164,211	49,963
Salt	1,025,300	205,060	1,102,101	220,420
Coal	478,095	143,429	405,652	121,695
Total	$67,316,898	$18,493,382	$ 7,001,428	$19,950,140
Average Quarterly Value,		$7,351,146 20		$2,377,612 83

Statement exhibiting the value of dutiable merchandise re-exported annually, from 1840 to 1852, inclusive, and showing also the value re-exported from warehouses under the act of August 6, 1846:—

Years.	Dutiable value of merchandise.	Value re-exported from Warehouses
1840	$5,805,809	—
1841	4,228,181	—
1842	4,884,462	—
1843	3,456,572	—
1844	3,962,508	—
1845	5,171.731	—
1846	5,522,577	—
1847 *	$2,333,527	
1847 †	2,020,380	
	4,353,907	$651,170
1848	6,576,499	2,869,941
1849	6,625,276	3,692,363
1850	7,376,361	5,261,291
1851	8,551,967	5,666,000
1852	9,501,138	6,752,536
Total in thirteen years	$319,146,636	24,831,754
Average per annum	$9,973,332	4,138,626

* 5 months to Nov. 30. † 7 months to June 30.

Summary Statement of the Value of Domestic Exports of the United States during the year ending 30th June, 1852:

PRODUCE OF THE SEA.

Oil, sperm	$809,274
Whale and other fish	440,287
Whalebone	436,673
Sperm candles	143,096
Dried and smoked fish	354,127
Pickled fish	98,883
Total	$2,282,342

PRODUCE OF THE FOREST.

Wood—staves, shingles, boards, hewn timber, &c	$2,674,577
Other lumber	123,522
Masts and spars	95,459
Oak bark and other dye	160,154
Manufactures of wood	2,193,085
Naval stores	1,209,173
Ashes—pot and pearl	$507,673
Ginseng	102,073
Skins and furs	798.504
Total	$7,864,220

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PRODUCT OF AGRICULTURE.

Of Animals—beef, tallow, hides, and horned cattle	$1,500,429
Butter and cheese	779,391
Pork, (pickled,) bacon, lard, and live hogs	3,765,470
Horses and mules	247,550
Sheep	16,291
Wool	14,308
Wheat	2,555,209
Flour	11,869,143
Indian corn	1,540,225
" meal	574,380
Rye meal	64,476
Rye, oats, and other small grain and pulse	334,471
Biscuit or ship bread	318,899
Potatoes	115,121
Apples	43,635
Rice	2,471,029
Cotton	87,965,732
Tobacco	10,031,283
Hemp	18,649
Total	$124,225,691

OTHER AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS.

Flaxseed	$56,187
Hops	69,042
Brown sugar	24,057
Indigo	910
Total	$150,196

MANUFACTURES.

Wax	$91,400
Refined sugar	149,921
Chocolate	3,267
Spirits from grain	48,737
" " molasses	323,040
Molasses	13,163
Vinegar	12,220
Beer, porter, and cider	48,052
Linseed oil	14,981
Spirits of turpentine	137,856
Household furniture	430,182
Coaches and carriages	172,445
Hats	80,453
Saddlery	47,937
Tallow candles and soap	660,054
Snuff and tobacco	1,316,622
Leather boots and shoes	428,708
Cables and cordage	62,903
Gunpowder	121,580
Salt	89,346
Lead	32,725
Iron—Pig, bar, and nails	118,624
" castings	191,388
" all manufactures of	1,993,807
Copper and brass, and manufactures of	103,039
Medical drugs	263,852
Cotton—piece goods, printed or colored	926,404
" uncolored	6,139,381
" thread and yarns	34,718
" all manufactures of	571,638
Flax and hemp—cloth and thread	5,468
" " bags & other manufs. of	8,154
Wearing apparel	250,228
Earthen and stone ware	18,310
Combs and buttons	28,833
Brushes of all kinds	4,385
Billiard tables	1,088
Umbrellas and parasols	8,340
Morocco and other leather not sold by the pound	18,617
Fire engines and apparatus	16,724
Printing presses and type	47,781
Musical instruments	67,733
Books and maps	217,809
Paper and stationery	119,535
Paints and varnish	85,369
Glass	194,634
Tin	23,420
Pewter and lead	18,469
Marble and stone	57,240
Gold and silver and leaf	20,332
Gold and silver coin	37,437,738
Artificial flowers and jewelry	114,738
Trunks	15,035
Brick and Lime	13,539
Coal	188,906
Ice	161,086
Total	$52,953,092

ARTICLES NOT ENUMERATED.

Manufactured	$2,877,659
Raw produce	1,175,775
Total	$4,073,484
Showing a grand total of	$192,368,984

Statement exhibiting the quantity and value of cotton exported annually, from 1840 *to* 1852, *inclusive.*

Year.	lbs. Sea Island.	lbs. Total.	Value.
1840	8,779,669..	743,941,061..	$63,870,307
1841	6,237,424..	530,204,100..	54,330,341
1842	7,246,099..	584,717,014..	47,593,462
1843	7,515,088..	792,297,106..	49,119,806
1844	6,099,076..	663,683,455..	54,063,504
1845	9,389,626..	872,905,996..	51,739,643
1846	9,888,533..	547,558,055..	42,767,331
1847	6,298,973..	537,219,958..	53,415,848
1848	7,724,148..	814,274,431..	61,998,294
1849	11,969,259..	1,026,602,269..	66,396,967
1850	8,236,463..	635,381,604..	71,984,616
1851	8,299,626..	927,237,089..	112,315,317
1852	11,738,075..	1,093,230,639..	87,985,732

Statement exhibiting the aggregate value of Breadstuffs and Provisions exported annually from 1840 *to* 1852:

Year ending	September	30, 1840	$19,067,535
"	"	" 1841	17,166,102
"	"	" 1842	16,902,876
Nine months ending	June	30, 1843	11,204,128
Year ending	June	" 1844	17,970,136
"	"	" 1845	16,743,424
"	"	" 1846	27,701,421
"	"	" 1847	68,701,921
"	"	" 1848	37,472,751
"	"	" 1849	38,155,507
"	"	" 1850	26,051,370
"	"	" 1851	21,948,650
"	"	" 1852	25,857,027

TONNAGE OF THE ATLANTIC STATES.

Statement of the Tonnage of the Atlantic States from 1825 *to* 1852, *inclusive:*

States.	1825.	1835.	1845.	1852.
Maine	174,791..	262,776..	320,060..	592,806
Massachusetts	352,442..	496,928..	524,995..	767,766
New-Hampshire	24,251..	22,780..	23,771..	24,891
New-York	316,940..	396,293..	625,875..	1,134,831
Pennsylvania	74,164..	101,447..	147,812..	237,567
Maryland	146,691..	96,593..	118,164..	206,247
Virginia	57,541..	55,682..	50,705..	72,536
South Carolina	27,256..	16,765..	19,615..	46,735
North Carolina	39,040..	42,986..	39,862..	50,621
Georgia	10,611..	9,253..	16,140..	25,785
Louisiana	29,862..	79,465..	170,525..	268,176
Florida	530..	4,482..	11,355..	9,660
Total tonnage	1,423,112..	1,594,940..	2,417,002..	4,138,440

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DOMESTIC PRODUCE, ETC., EXPORTED.

Statement of the Domestic Produce, &c., exported from the United States to foreign countries, from 1840 to 1852, inclusive:

Years ending on.	Specie and Bullion.	Produce and Manufactures.	Total.
1840, 30th September	2,235,073	111,660,561	113,895,634
1841, "	2,746,486	103,636,236	106,382,722
1842, "	1,170,754	91,799,242	92,969,996
1843, 9 months, June 30.	107,429	77,686,354	77,793,783
1844, year, "	183,405	99,531,744	99,715,179
1845, 30th September	844,446	98,455,330	99,299,776
1846, "	423,851	101,718,042	102,141,893
1847, "	62,620	150,574,844	150,637,464
1848, "	2,700,412	130,203,709	132,904,121
1849, "	956,874	131,710,081	132,666,955
1850, "	2,046,679	134,900,233	136,946,912
1851, "	18,069,380	178,620,138	196,689,718
1852, "	37,437,837	154,931,147	192,366,984

The abundant *copper resources of Michigan* continue still to attract attention. A single mineral section which brought a few years ago $2.600, is now supposed to be worth $400,000. The completion of the Sault St. Marie Canal will greatly develope these resources, and the land appropriation by Congress will be adequate to the completion.

The results which are sure to be derived to the country at a future day, so far as the article of copper is concerned, can be roughly estimated from statements which we shall give, of operations in English mining, down to the period when attention was prominently drawn to the region around Lake Superior. The English mines do not afford so pure an article as the American, by a large per centage, and that the cost of production in the former has been much greater than it will be in the latter. In 1843 the exports of British copper consisted of 8,463 tons, unwrought, in pigs, &c.; 60 tons of coin; 8,386 tons in sheets, nails, &c.; 6 tons of wire, and 598 tons of wrought copper, making a total of 18,515 tons. The quantity of copper ore carried to England for the purpose of being smelted, and re-imported in the metallic state, has been very great of late years. In 1826, but 64 tons were sent. In 1836, the importation had reached 18,491 tons, and in 1844 the quantity had increased to 55,720 tons. In 1843, 64,445 tons of ore produced 11,640 tons of metal, or a fraction over 18 per cent. The foreign copper ore imported into England in that year was estimated at $900,000—Chili furnished 19,849 tons, and the United States 1,151 tons. Three-sevenths of the copper made in England, at that period, was from foreign ore, the remainder from ore derived principally from the mines of Cornwall. The total value of all the British copper mines is, in good years, £1,500,000.

COMMERCE OF TOLEDO.—Supposing you to be interested in the march of business in all parts of the great central plain, I have procured, says J. W. Scott, of *Toledo*, in a letter to us to-day, from the canal collector, at this place, a few items of arrivals and clearances by canal, from the opening of navigation, for the years 1851 and 1852, up to 14th of November:

Articles.	Arrived. 1851.	Arrived. 1852.	Cleared. 1851.	Cleared. 1852.
Flour ..... bbls.	196,838	260,898	576	28
Pork ..... bbls.	32,410	31,895	—	—
Whisky and high wines ..... bbls.	15,488	21,790	—	—
Corn meal ..... bbls.	261	3,771	—	—
Salt ..... bbls.	—	—	82,475	133,281
Beef ..... bbls.	6,339	10,105	—	—
Fish (lake) ..... bbls.	—	—	8,553	7,725
Tar and rosin ..... bbls.	—	1	68	1,271
Gypsum ..... bbls.	—	—	655	1,203
Corn ..... bush.	2,562,961	3,878,047	—	—
Wheat ..... bush.	1,250,355	1,954,718	—	—
Oats ..... bush.	40,176	46,084	—	—
Rye ..... bush.	1,130	3,212	—	—
Grass seed ..... bush.	500	1,227	—	—
Flaxseed ..... bush.	14,741	31,344	—	—
Barley ..... bush.	—	385	15,432	14,547

Under the head of pounds, the largest item is rail-road iron. In 1851 there cleared, 13,889,921; in 1852, 41,933.592.

Locomotives to the number of 13 were, this season, for the first time, sent up the canal. The articles which seek transport on the 600 miles of canal which find their lake outlet in the harbor of Toledo, are in great variety, and many of them, not in the table above, are quite important in our interior commerce. By the close of navigation, the

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receipts of grain by this channel alone will have reached six million bushels. Adding the flour at five bush. the bbl., and the large figure of seven million and three hundred thousands of bushels is made, to represent the breadstuffs discharged from canal-boats at Toledo. The receipts by rail-road have more than doubled those of any preceding year, as have also those by wagon. The tables exhibiting these have not yet been prepared.

NEWSPAPERS.—By the last census it appears the number published in the United States is 2625, circulating about 400,000,000 copies annually. It is curious to trace the origin of this powerful Fourth Estate from its humble beginnings in the seventeenth century.

"When the reign of James the First was drawing to a close; when Ben Jonson was poet laureate, and the personal friends of Shakspeare were lamenting his recent death; when Cromwell was trading as a brewer at Huntingdon; when Milton was a youth of sixteen, just trying his pen at Latin verse, and Hampden a quiet country gentlemen in Buckinghamshire; London was first solicited to patronise its first newspaper. There is no reason to doubt that the puny ancestors of the myriads of broad sheets of our time was published in the metropolis in 1622, and that the most prominent of the ingenious speculators who offered the novelty to the world was one Nathaniel Butter. His companions in the work appear to have been Nicholas Bourne, Thomas Archer, Nathaniel Newberry, Wm. Sheffard, Bartholomew Downes and Edward Allde. All these different names appear in the imprints of the early numbers of the first newspaper—the *New News*. What appears to be the earliest sheet bears date the 23d of May, 1622, and has the names of Bourne and Archer on the title; but as we proceed in the examination of the subject, we find that Butter becomes the most conspicuous of the set. He seems to have been the author and the writer whilst the others were probably the publishers; and, with varying title, and apparently with but indifferent success, his name is found connected with newspapers as late as 1640."

In continuation of the statistics of Florida Keys and Wreckers, as given in the Industrial Resources, we give the following table, for which we are indebted to E. J. Gomez, Esq., Spanish consul, and agent for insurance companies of Spain and Cuba, at Key-West:—

STATEMENT OF VESSELS WRECKED ON THE FLORIDA COAST, AND ASSISTED BY THE KEY WEST "WRECKERS."

Years.	Vessels.	Amount awarded for salvage.	Amount of expenses.	Total am't of salvage and expenses.	Value of vessels and cargoes.
1844	29	$92,712 19	$76,352 80	$169,064 99	$725,000 00
1845	26	69,592 00	36,117 50	105,709 50	737,000 00
1846	53*	124,400 28	65,921 26	190,321 54	1,462,917 77
1847	20	50,854 00	29,563 00	71,417 00	535,000 00
1848	41	125,800 00	74,260 00	200,060 00	1,282,000 00
1849	46	127,870 00	91,290 00	219,160 00	1,305,000 00
1850	30	122,831 00	78,029 00	200,860 00	929,800 00
1851	34	75,852 00	89,233 00	165,085 00	941,500 00
Total	279	$789,911 47	$531,766 56	$1,321,678 03	$7,918,217 77

We have often had occasion to refer to the prodigious advances of Georgia in every element of material wealth, and the reader will find in the Industrial Resources quite a chapter upon the subject. We add the following additional items:—

In castings, Georgia has four establishments, with a capital invested of $35,000. They consume 440 tons pig iron, 100 tons mineral coal, 9,800 bushels of coke and charcoal. There are 39 hands employed in them. The value of raw material, etc., is $11,950. These establishments turn out 415 tons castings. The entire value of product being $46,800. In pig iron she has three establishments—capital invested, $36,000; ore used, 5,189 tons; value of raw material, $25,840. There is turned out 900 tons pig iron, value of entire product, $57,300. She has in woolen goods three establishments—capital invested, $68,000; pounds of wool used, 153,816; the value of the raw material is $30,392; yards of cloth manufactured, 340,660;

* Many of these vessels were lost in the severe hurricane experienced on the 11th of October. Estimated number of vessels lost or injured on the Keys since 1823, 1200; of the value with cargoes, $40,000,000. From the 1st January to 1st Sept., 1852, 21 vessels reached Key West in distress or for repairs.

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entire value of product, $88,750. In cotton goods she has over thirty-five establishments—capital invested, $1,730-156; number of bales of cotton consumed, 20,230; value of raw material, $900,419; the number of yards sheeting, etc., turned out, $7,209.292; the value of entire product is $2,135,044; the entire amount of capital invested in Georgia in manufactures is $1,859,156: the entire product, $2,329,294.

We have seen a letter from J. V. Phillips upon the subject of the *lead mines of Galena and the Upper Mississippi*, in which he states that not more than five per cent. of the lead has yet been removed, in value about 35 or $40,000,-000, though the product has been yearly decreasing.

Production of Lead in pigs of 70 lbs., of the "Upper Mines," for seven years, from 1846 to 1852, inclusive.

Pigs produced in 1846	626,960
" " 1847	778,469
" " 1848	681,969
" " 1849	628,934
" " 1850	568,300
" " 1851	472,608
" " 1852	400,000

Notwithstanding this great falling off, which, if continued, would close the mines in a few years, the price of lead has been steadily rising. The average price of lead in 1847 may be set down at $3 60 per 100 lbs., and in 1852 at $4 10 on the levee at Galena.

The estimated *expenditure of the City of New-York*, for all purposes, in 1853, is as follows:

For expenditure of the City Government, exclusive of Police, Lamps and Gas		$2,539,938 00
For Police		615,000 00
For Lamps and Gas		325,000 00
Total for City and County Expenditures subject to the control of the City Authorities, and for which application must be made to the Legislature for authority to levy		$3,479,938 00
For instalment on Building Loan Stock, No. 2	$50,000 00	
For instalment on Washington Square Iron Railing Stock	5,000 00	
For Common Schools for City purposes	569,036 08	
For Common Schools for State	225,670 80	
		$849,706 88
For State Mill Tax		100,000 00
For deficiency of Taxation, 1852		742,157 91
		$5,171,802 79
Tax for 1852—actual amount		$3,380,571 65
Increase of levy of 1853 over that of 1852		$1,791,391 74

The assessment returns of the *value of property in New-Orleans for* 1852, show:

Rep. Dist.	Real Estate.	Negroes.	Capital.	Licences.
1st	5,414,215..	485,400..	187,255..	3,855
2nd	6,708,905..	594,000..	497,695..	6,768
3rd	18,590,480..	542,600..	6,313,930..	53,342
4th	8,767,250..	325,000..	2,308,550..	14,778
5th	6,857,760..	589,800..	536,475..	11,808
6th	3,919,225..	380,700..	383,150..	4,386
7th	2,394,730..	261,600..	187,300..	5,484
8th	1,613,880..	172,500..	Negroes, &c.	2,179
9th	1,837,030..	245,100..	80,400..	2,581
Real Est.	56,103,475..	3,596,700..	10,494,755..	105,181
Negroes,	3,596,700			
Capital	10,494,755			
Total,	$70,194,930			

The amount of taxes for public schools in New-Orleans for 1852, was $70,194 93. The state tax, 11 cents on the $100, reached $105,181 00. Previous to the consolidation of the municipalities the debt of New-Orleans was estimated as follows, and has been secured in its principal and interest by that measure of reform:

M.	Funded Debt.	Floating Debt.
I	492,300 00	664,256 80
II	1,749,660 00	1,011,650 98
III	636,480 00	263,705 37
	2,878,440 00	1,939,613 15

M.	Cash assets.	Net Debt.
I	114,564 37	1,041,992 43
II	463,262 32	2,298,048 66
III	—	900,185 37
	577,826 69	4,240,226 46

M.	Debt proper.	Proportion of Old City Debt.	Total.
I	1,041,992 43	919,289 20	1,961,281 63
II	2,298,048 66	1,590,810 85	3,888,859 51
III	900,185 37	357,947 35	1,258,132 72
	4,240,226 46	2,868,047 40	7,108,273 86

The following are the number of ships engaged in the North Pacific fishery for the last eleven years, and the averaged quantity of oil taken:—1841, 20 ships averaged 1,412 barrels—28,200 barrels; 1842, 29 ships averaged 1,627 barrels—47,200 barrels; 1843, 108 ships averaged 1,349 barrels—146,800 barrels; 1844, 170 ships averaged 1,528 barrels—259,-570 barrels; 1845, 263 ships averaged 953 barrels—250,600 barrels; 1846, 292 ships averaged 869 barrels—253,800 barrels; 1847, 177 ships averaged 1,059 barrels—187,443 barrels; 1848, 159 ships averaged 1,164 barrels—185,256 barrels; 1849, 155 ships averaged 1,334 barrels—206,850 barrels; 1850, 144 ships averaged 1,692 barrels—243,648 barrels; 1851, 138 ships averaged 626 barrels—86 360 barrels.

In 1852 about 283 ships cruised in the

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northern seas, four of which were lost. Of the remaining number 179 have been reported in, with an aggregate of 225,570 barrels, or an average catch of 1,260 bbls.

The following table will show the amount of sperm and whale oil on hand in the United States on the 1st day of January, 1853, as nearly as can be ascertained:—

	Sperm.	Whale.	Bone.
New-Bedford	4,635	3,450	113,000
Fair Haven	3,400	2,600	
Fall River	—	400	—
Warren	—	1,700	—
Nantucket	1,000	—	—
Mattapoisett	200	60	—
Westport	220	—	—
Total	9,555	8,210	113,000

There is said to be a considerable quantity of whale oil on hand in New-York, mostly return shipments from Europe, but we are unable to ascertain the amount.

The following table will show the amount of oil and whalebone on hand from 1852 to 1845, inclusive:—

	Sperm.	Whale.	Bone.
Jan. 1, 1852	19,350	36,500	unknown.
1851	3,610	14,062	242,000
1850	3,760	13.000	440,000
1849	10,147	20,936	994,600
1848	5,096	29,126	921,500
1847	14,613	7,775	112,800
1846	40,701	5,221	211,000
1845	35,992	12,950	unknown.

The annual statement of the United States Mint for 1852, shows the following total coinage for 1852:—

GOLD.

2,053,026	Double Eagles	$41,060,520 00
263,106	Eagles	2,631,060 00
573,901	Half Eagles	2,869,505 00
1,159,381	Quarter Eagles	2,899,202 50
2,045,351	Gold Dollars	2,045,351 00
6,094,765	Pieces.	$51,505,638 50

SILVER.

1,100	Dollars	$1,100 00
77,130	Half Dollars	38,565 00
177,060	Quarter Dollars	44,265 00
1,535,500	Dimes	153,550 00
1,000,500	Half Dimes	50,025 00
18,663,500	Three Cent Pieces	559,905 00
27,549,555	Pieces.	$52,352,948 50

COPPER.

5,162,094	Cents	$51,620 94
32,711,649	Pieces	$52,404,569 44

We gather from official reports, made to the last session of the legislature of Virginia, the following particulars relating to the commerce of her great public works:—

Statement showing the amount of Tonnage and the Estimated Value thereof, imported into the City of Richmond, on the James River and Kanawha Canal, Richmond, Fredericksburg and Potomac Railroad, Richmond and Petersburg Railroad, Richmond and Danville Railroad, and the Virginia Central Railroad, during each of the last five years, together with the Freights and Tolls paid on the said Tonnage.

I.—JAMES RIVER AND KANAWHA CANAL.

Year ending	No. of tons.	Estimated value.	Freights.	Tolls.	Freight and tolls.
October 31, 1848	125,054	$4,230,532 18	$64,250 13	$128,500 25	$192,750 38
" 1849	140,696	5,435,046 66	82,620 39	165,240 69	247.861 08
" 1850	137,589	6,123.865 49	71,247 16	142,494 31	213,741 47
" 1851	140,924	5,133,853 62	61,613 29	123,226 59	184,839 88
" 1852	153,377	7,145,837 43	73,649 28	147,298 56	220,947 84
Total for 5 years,	697,640	$28,069,135 38	$353,380 25	$706,760 40	$1,060,140 65

II.—RICHMOND AND PETERSBURG RAILROAD.

	Tonnage.	Value.	Freight.
From 1st October, 1847, to 1st October, 1848	20,301	$632,557 99	$18,361 63
" 1848, " 1849	19,539	695,742 40	18,159 71
" 1849, " 1850	22,861	1,377,665 45	21,560 83
" 1850, " 1851	19,533	886,412 40	18,314 12
" 1851, " 1852	27,932	1,262,248 85	24,752 89
Total for 5 years	110,166	$4,854,627 09	$101,149 18

Table exhibiting the Amount of Tonnage, Estimated Value thereof, and the Freight paid on the same, imported into the City of Richmond by means of the several Works of Internal Improvement leading into the City, during the year 1852.

Names of Companies.	No. of tons.	Estimated value.	Freights and tolls.
James River and Kanawha Company	153,377	7,145,837 43	220,947 84
Richmond, Fredericksburg and Potomac Railroad,	4,807	285,000 00	19.252 03
Richmond and Petersburg Railroad	27,932	1,262.248 85	24,752 89
Richmond and Danville Railroad	53,421	967,336 00	37,919 45
Virginia Central Railroad	17,450	1,000,000 00	55,989 20
	256,987	$10,660,422 28	$358,861 41

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Statement of Exports of the Growth, Produce, and Manufacture of the United States from the District of Charleston, during the year 1852, *in American and Foreign Vessels.*

Whither Exported.	Miscellaneous articles.	Cotton. S. Island. lbs.	Cotton. Uplands. lbs.	Value in dollars.
Russia	39	—	1,000,849	88,515
Prussia	—	—	—	—
Sweden	100	7,993	526,517	48,668
Holland	6,196	—	944,556	83,349
Belgium	40	—	2,045,392	177,850
England	17,358	5,148,526	85,430,489	8,992,698
British West Indies	10,457	—	—	—
French European ports on the Atlantic	5,342	855,680	12,430,910	1,379,490
" " " Mediterranean	3,515	537,925	6,487,720	753,914
Cuba	20,319	—	—	—
Italy	—	—	250,760	20,348
Buenos Ayres	7,508	—	—	—
Hanse Towns and ports of Germany	5,132	17,398	2,826,550	233,145
Denmark and Norway	—	—	7,080	540
Holland	5,866	—	702,752	63,170
Spanish European ports on the Mediterranean	3,682	—	8,845,548	933,919
Spanish West Indies	885	—	—	—
United Provinces of La Plata	2,384	—	—	—
Spanish European ports on the Atlantic	3,715	—	—	—
Africa	6,342	—	—	—
Guatamalian ports on the Atlantic	2,075	—	—	—
Scotland	110	20,242	1,286,152	124,014
Brazil	8,356	—	—	—
Totals	**$109,421**	**6,587,764**	**122,785,275**	**$12,899,620**

Whither Exported.	Rice. Quantity in tierces.	Rice. Value in dollars.	Rough Rice. Quantity in bushels.	Rough Rice. Value in dollars.	Total value to each country.
Russia	274	6,217	—	—	94,771
Prussia	2,904	72,506	—	—	72,506
Sweden	—	—	47,982	44,111	92,879
Holland	1,001	21,266	912	915	111,726
Belgium	2,604	50,299	35,773	22,023	250,212
England	4,513	80,230	138,115	113,707	9,230,386
British West Indies	683	13,296	—	—	28,516
French European ports on the Atlantic	2,442	61,726	8,801	8,000	1,454,558
" " " Mediterranean	1,043	26,781	—	—	784,210
Cuba	17,480	378,059	—	—	398,378
Italy	—	—	17,502	16,000	36,348
Buenos Ayres	—	—	—	—	7,508
Hanse Towns and ports of Germany	—	—	—	—	238,757
Denmark and Norway	—	—	79,282	70,938	71,478
Holland	—	—	912	915	69,951
Spanish European ports on the Mediterranean	—	—	—	—	937,601
Spanish West Indies	239	3,700	—	—	4,585
United Province of La Plata	—	—	—	—	2,384
Spanish European ports on the Atlantic	—	—	—	—	3,715
Africa	—	—	—	—	6,342
Guatamalian ports on the Atlantic	—	—	—	—	2,075
Scotland	2	36	—	—	124,160
Brazil	—	—	—	—	8,356
Totals	**33,185**	**$714,116**	**329,279**	**$276,609**	**$14,031,402**

The aggregate amount of imports in American and foreign vessels during the year 1852, was: in American vessels, $1,285.716; in foreign vessels, $481,627 —total, $1,767,343.

There were 9,426 barrels of naval stores, valued at $31,636, exported from Charleston in 1852, chiefly to England.

Since 1835 taxation in New-York has quadrupled, while the value of real property has not increased thirty per cent., and the population has not quite doubled. And still, New-York prospers. The following statistical table shows the rate of taxation from the year 1835 to 1852:—

Year.	Valuation.	Tax.	Rate. Mills.
1835	$218,723,703	$862,006 00	2 5-10
1836	309,500,920	1,085,130 44	3 5-10
1837	263,747,350	1,244,972 15	4 7-10
1838	264,152,941	1,244,972 15	5 7-10
1839	266,882,430	1,352,832 68	5 1-10
1840	252,135,515	1,354,479 29	5 4-10
1841	252,194,920	1,394,146 65	5 5-10
1842	237,806,901	2,031,382 66	8 5-10
1843	229,239,077	1,747,516 59	7 6-10
1844	236,727,143	1,988,818 56	8 4-10
1845	239,995,517	2,096,191 18	8 7-10
1846	244,952,004	2,520,146 71	10 3-10
1847	247,152,303	2,581,776 30	10 4-10
1848	254,192,527	2,715,510 25	10 7-10
1849	254,192,527	2,715,510 25	10 7-10
1850	286,061,816	3,230,085 02	11 3-10
1851	286,061,816	3,239,085 02	11 3-10
1852	351,768,399	3,380,511 05	9 7-10

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Mr. Tuel of New-York lately published in the New-York Journal of Commerce an article upon the steamships of that city. From it we learn that the *Cunard* (British) *line* was established in 1838, and consists of Arabia, 2,500 tons; Asia, 2,200; Europa, 1,800; America, 1,800; Persia, 3,100; Africa, 2,200; Niagara, 1,800; Canada, 1,800; Cambria, 1,500; aggregate tonnage, 10,000.

The New-York and Liverpool United States Mail Steamers.—This line was established by E. K. Collins, Esq., in 1850. The first of its ships, the Atlantic, sailed from New-York for Liverpool 27th April, 1850. The Arctic of this line has made the quickest passage of the Atlantic steamers from New-York to Liverpool, accomplishing it in 9 days and 17 hours. Atlantic, 3,000 tons; Pacific, 3,000; Baltic, 3,000; Arctic, 3,000; aggregate tonnage, 13,000.

The Ocean Steam Navigation Company comprises the United States Mail Steamship line between New-York, Southampton and Bremen, and consists of the Washington of 1,700 tons; the Hermann, 1,700; aggregate tonnage, 3,300. This company was established in 1847.

The New-York and Havre Steam Navigation Company consists of the United States Mail Steamers, the Franklin, of 2,209 tons; Humboldt, 2,200; aggregate tonnage, 4,400 tons.

The Glasgow and New-York Steam ship Company is running its new steamship Glasgow, of 1,962 tons and four hundred horse power.

The steamships employed on *lines between New-York and the Southern cities of the United States* are seventeen, belonging to the following companies: 4 steamers, Marion, Union, Southerner and Adger, of 12, 15, 10 and 1,500 tons, respectively, New-York and Charleston Steamship Company, 6,200; 2 propellers, Benj. Franklin and Wm. Penn (1,000 each) between New-York and New-Orleans, 2,000; 2 propellers, City of Norfolk and Richmond, between Charleston, Norfolk, Petersburgh and Richmond, of 444 and 518 tons respectively, 962; 1 N. Y. and Alabama Steamship Company, Black Warrior, between New-York and New Orleans, Mobile and Havana, 1,900; 3 New-York and Savannah Steamship Co., Florida, Alabama and Augusta, of 1,300, and 1,350 tons respectively, 3,950; 2 New-York and Virginia Steamship Company, the Roanoke and Jamestown, 1,050 respectively, 2,100; 3 United States Mail Steamship Company, the Cherokee, Empire and Crescent City, 1,300, 2,000, and 1,500, respectively, 4,800; total number of ships employed, 17; aggregate of tonnage, 21,912.

The California lines consist of the steamers of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, as follows: the Golden Gate, 2,500 tons; Tennessee, 1,300; Northerner, 1,200; Republic, 1,200; Oregon, 1,099; Panama, 1,087; California, 1,050; Columbia, 800; Carolina, 600; Columbus, 600; Isthmus, 600; Unicorn, 600; Fremont, 600; John L. Stephens, 1,500; total, 15,536 tons.

The United States Mail Steamship Company, on the Atlantic side, connect with the *Pacific Mail Company.*—Their steamers are: Georgia, 3,000 tons; Ohio, 3,000; Illinois, 2,500; Empire City, 2,000; Crescent City, 1,500; Cherokee, 1,300; Philadelphia, 1,200; El Dorado, 1,300; Falcon, 1,000; George Law, 2,800; Total, 19,600.

Vanderbilt's Line, via Nicaragua, is composed of 10 ships: The Northern Light, 2,500 tons; Prometheus, 1,500; Pacific, 1,200; S. S. Lewis, 2,000; Morning Star, 2,500; Independence, 900; Pioneer, 2,500; Brother Jonathan, 2,100; Star of the West, 1,600; Daniel Webster, 1,200. Total, 18,000.

The New-York and San Francisco Steamship Company is composed of the following steamers: the Winfield Scott, 2,100 tons; United States, 1,500; Cortez, 1,800; Uncle Sam, 2,000. Total, 7,400.

The Empire City Line is composed of the following steamers: the Sierra Nevada, 1,800 tons; City of Pittsburgh, 2,000; San Francisco, 3,000. Total, 6,800.

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ART. X.—INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

TEHUANTEPEC RAIL-ROAD.—NEW-ORLEANS AND WESTERN-ROAD.—MEMPHIS AND HOLLY SPRINGS ROAD.—SOUTH CAROLINA RAIL-ROAD.—MACON AND WESTERN-ROAD.—PHILADELPHIA RAIL-ROADS TO THE WEST.—SOUTHERN RAIL-ROADS.—RUSK'S RAIL-ROAD BILL.—TEXAS RAIL-ROADS, ETC.

THE Mexican government, persisting in their denial of the validity of the Garay grant, upon which we had so much to say in our January number, have by a formal contract conceded the passage of the *Isthmus of Tehuantepec* to Mr. Sloo and others. We have seen a summary of the provisions of the new grant, and regard it of sufficient importance to be copied at length.

ART. 1. Provides that the communication is to be by water as far as the Guatzacualco river is navigable.

2. A plank-road to be commenced from the head of navigation, within one year, and completed in three years. A rail-road to be commenced at the end of three years, and to be completed in the course of the four following years.

4. Company shall make docks, etc., at the ports of the termini, which are to be designated by the government of Mexico.

5. Government grants the lands necessary for plank-road and rail-road, and for buildings, etc.; owners of private property taken to be indemnified according to law.

6. The company may use public lands *en route* gratis, and also that of private individuals with indemnity, etc.

8. The company to have exclusive right of transit for passengers, freights, etc., at rates to be approved by government. Government to levy any contribution on the property, etc., of the enterprise, at any time, but it reserves the right to impose a duty not exceeding 12½ cents per passenger and package transported by the company's route.

9. The company may import free of duty, all materials, etc., for the road, with the sanction of government; also such provisions, etc., for workmen as cannot be procured on the Isthmus of Tehuantepec.

10. The company subjects to rules established by government; no sales of goods, etc., to be made on the route.

11. The government will open two ports at the termini of the road, it being understood that Ventosa shall be used only for the reception of passengers and merchandise by the company. The other port is Vera Cruz.

13. Government protection is assured to the company and its employés during the twenty years of its existence.

14. Guarantees payment by the company of $300,000 in silver at once, and $50,000 in monthly instalments until $600,000 is paid.

15. The company is to carry the Mexican mails without charge, and all goods for the Mexican government at one-fourth of the regular rates; all Mexican troops, officers and government agents to pass free. All moneys, ores and other products of the country to be transported at one-fourth less than the regular rates.

16. For fifty years the government is to receive 20 per cent. of the profits of the road. All privileges stated, are guaranteed during the twenty years to the company; but at the end of that time the road is to be turned over to the government, guaranteeing the delivery at the end of that time, by a deposit of 10 per cent. of the profits for the last ten years of the contract.

17. The company to build light-houses, etc., at designated points; and will appropriate 2½ per cent. of the net profits of this road to that object.

18. Inspectors to be appointed by both parties to overlook their interests along the road.

19. The company is to construct no forts, introduce no armed troops, shall not admit on the road any more persons than necessary to do their necessary work. The company to assist in preventing smuggling.

20. Foreigners employed by the company to have only the same rights as Mexican citizens. All questions to be decided by Mexican tribunals.

21. Transit free to all nations; but 25 per cent. to be added to the charge for transporting merchandise of other nations who have no treaty with Mexico.

22. Offices for the sale of bonds are to be opened in the City of Mexico and London, and for the first six months one

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third part of the shares are to be kept at the disposal of Mexican citizens.

23. Foreign mails may be carried over the road by the company; but always sealed, and passing through under proper inspection.

24. No sales of shares to be sold for lands appropriated for Indians, etc.

25. All the articles of the convocation of July, 1852, not conflicting with those stated above, are to be binding on the company.

NAVIGATION ARTICLES.—1. The exclusive privilege of navigating the Guatzacoalcos, is guaranteed; but Mexican vessels have a right of navigation for the supply of the inhabitants along the bank of the river.

2. Government exempts from tonnage-duty all the company's vessels.

3. The company is to supply a line of steamers under the Mexican flag, to transport merchandise from Vera Cruz to the Guatzacoalcos.

4. All Mexican mails are to be carried free of charge to all points at which the vessels of the company touch, and all goods belonging to the Mexican government at one-fourth part of the regular charge. All troops, agents of the government, etc., are to be free of transit; metals, products, etc., at 25 per cent. less than the regular rates.

5. Steamers on Pacific are to use the port of Acapulco as a depot for coal, and as soon as possible, they are to use the coal mined in the State of Guerero.

From the Report of President Overton of the *New-Orleans and Western Rail-road Company* we glean the following statistics:

Receipts and Expenditures of the N. O. and Great Western Rail-road Company.

RECEIPTS.

On account of	
Stock instalments paid in	$136,420 00
Contributions for preliminary expenses	3,941 88
	$140,361 88

EXPENDITURES.

On account of	
Preliminary expenses by Executive Committee	$6,063 89
Real Estate	16,100 00
Rights of Way	216 35
Engineering and Surveying	14,179 06
Office expenses, salaries and contingencies	9,258 04
Grading and clearing	14,110 80
Timber for track	2,056 50
Iron	2,171 81
Cash Balance on deposit	79,205 43
	$140,361 88

The following are the amounts of subscription to the capital stock of this company, which are made payable in periods of from one to five years:

Private subscription	$759,835 00
Orleans Right Bank	75,000 00
Parish Lafayette	33,400 00
" St. Martin's	103,775 00
" St. Landry	115,625 00
" Natchitoches	250,000 00
" St. Mary	156,600 00
City of New-Orleans	1,500,000 00
	$2,994,235 00

M. B. Hewson, whose report upon the Holly Springs location of the *Memphis and Charleston Rail-road* we lately noticed, uses the following language upon the practicability and utility of that route: "It may be safely assumed, therefore, that the increase of way trade arising from the Holly Springs location will reach $60,000—in order, however, to be perfectly safe in the matter, let this increase be taken at $30,000. Now, the through business estimated by its friends for the Memphis and Charleston road, would certainly pay the running expenses of the road, and here then, arising from the Holly Springs location, is at the very lowest calculation a net profit equivalent to $500,000 at 6 per cent. or to very nearly one per cent. on the whole estimated capital. Assuming then the additional capital required for the La Grange route, at the sum of $125,000, the additional business on the other route bringing an income equivalent to an additional capital of half a million,—the Holly Springs route will yield to the stockholders 1¼ per cent. per annum, over and above the yield of the La Grange. On the basis then of the profitableness of the La Grange route, I beg leave to report to your Excellency, that the Holly Springs location of the Memphis and Charleston rail-road is decidedly "profitable."

None of the interests involved in this road will at all suffer by the Holly Springs location. Collierville, by being made the point of turn-out for the Somerville branch from the main trunk, will, in all probability, become a point of importance, commensurate with the business of that branch. The Somerville branch, by the withdrawal of the rivalry of the main stem on the La Grange location, will in virtue of the undivided trade of Hardeman and McNairy, become an excellent stock; and while this accession of business will

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save all risks as to this short branch being abandoned for want of business to sustain it, the town of Somerville will become an important agency point for the Memphis merchants. Moscow, in virtue of its position at a bend in the main course of the Somerville branch will, by absorbing the business of the southern part of Fayette and Hardeman, and of the northern part of Marshall and Tippah, become the only distributing point for one of the richest planting districts along the whole length of the road. Nor will La Grange suffer by the Holly Springs location. This town is situated on a hill above Wolf river, and inaccessible to a road running north and south. In the event of the Memphis and Charleston Road being located by way of La Grange, the Mississippi Central Rail-road, (an extension of the New-Orleans and Jackson road,) being pushed into Tennessee under its charter in that state, till it connect with the Mobile and Ohio Rail-road at Jackson, in Madison county, will intersect the Memphis and Charleston Rail-road, some two miles east of La Grange, and as a consequence building up at the crossing the exchange point of that district, will bring utter ruin on La Grange. The superior advantages of the Holly Springs route to Memphis, are too plain to require comment.

The following statement of the *South Carolina Rail-road Company* for the year 1852, is taken from the report of H. W. Conner, President of the company:

Gross receipts of the road	$1,126,195 42
Expenses, current and extraordinary.	453,965 73
Net profit	$671,229 69
Interest paid on foreign and other debts, damages, etc	165,958 48
Net income	$505,271 21
Two dividends, 3½ per cent. each	271,600 00
Surplus	$233,671 21
This shows an increase in the gross receipts over any previous year, of..	$124 480 44

The following gentlemen have been elected officers of the *Macon and Western Rail-road*, Georgia:

President, Isaac Scott; directors, Andrew Low, Edward Padelford, J. C. Levy, Charles Moran, Drake Mills, Adam Norrie, Ker Boyce, F. C. Matthiesson, N. C. Munroe, J. B. Ross, Jas. Thweatt, C. J. McDonald.

The earnings have been as follows on this road:

	Passengers.	Mail.	Freight.	Total.
1852...	91,938,72..	13,272,77..	164,374,26..	269,585,75
1851...	102,694,29..	13,352,27..	95.546,70..	211.593,26
	10,755,57..	79,50..	68,827,56..	57,992,49

Showing a decrease in passenger earnings of 10½ per cent. and an increase of freight earnings of 72 per cent., with an aggregate increase of 27¼ per cent. over the business of 1851. This on the whole is a satisfactory result, though the decrease in the passenger earnings is to be regretted, and was not fully anticipated.

In the increase of the freight earnings, the expectations of the board have been fully realized; and a confident belief is entertained, that the increase will be continued.

The "Commercial List," published in Philadelphia, in discussing the capacities of that city to compete with all others, including New-York, for the trade of the great West, uses the following language:

On the first of the present month the last link of rail-road connection between Philadelphia and Pittsburgh was completed. This vast enterprise, involving an expenditure, actual and prospective, of full fifteen millions of dollars, begun by merchants of this city in the face of every discouragement, passive and active, has so far been achieved, that during the light of a summer day we can pass from the eastern to the western metropolis of Pennsylvania. The Quaker, so long quietly plodding, and shunning collisions, has boldly stepped into the arena of modern trade, and thrown down the iron gauntlet. In the generous strife, he calls upon his western friends to stand by him, and show fair play; and he will fear neither Yankee nor Knickerbocker, even with Europe at their back. What are the grounds of this confidence? Let a few figures answer.

The present line of rail-road from Philadelphia to Pittsburgh is 358 miles, which includes the portage over the mountains. Starting with this distance as a basis, let us see what are at this moment the relative distances from points on the southern lake shores and on the Ohio, to points on the sea-board. Other things being equal, the shortest of these routes will command the trade and

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travel. *Other things being equal;*—that is, with equal markets for purchase and sale, and equal cheapness, expedition, certainty and comfort in transit.

Considering first the lake business, the present point of departure from the Northwest for New-York and Philadelphia and places south of the latter, is Cleveland, the routes and distances being as follows:—

Cleveland to Dunkirk	145 miles	
Dunkirk to New-York	469	
Cleveland to New-York	—	614 miles.
Cleveland to Pittsburgh	140	
Pittsburgh to Philadelphia	357	
Cleveland to Philadelphia	—	497
Distance in favor of Philadelphia		117
Add even the distance from Philadelphia to New-York, through New-Jersey		96
And we have the distance less by		21 miles

from Cleveland to New-York *through* Philadelphia by the Ohio and Pennsylvania route, than from Cleveland to New-York by the lake shore and New-York and Erie routes.

Keeping still in view the lake connections, when the Ohio and Pennsylvania shall be completed to its junction with the Cleveland and Cincinnati Rail-road, seventy-five miles southwest of the former city—a new point of departure will be established for the travel thence eastward. Galion will be that point, only four miles south of the junction, and the routes will be as follows:—

Galion to Cleveland	79 miles.	
Cleveland to New-York	614	
Galion to New-York	—	693 miles.
Galion to Pittsburgh	190	
Pittsburgh to Philadelphia	357	
Galion to Philadelphia	—	547
Distance in favor of Philadelphia		146

Galion and New-York city are in the same latitude; and if, as thus appears, the distance between these two points is greater by one hundred and forty-five miles, than between the former and Philadelphia, how much more favorable must be the connections between Philadelphia and the whole Ohio and Mississippi Valley! Taking Cincinnati, for instance, as a starting point, Xenia is the point on the Cleveland and Cincinnati road at which the projected Pittsburgh connection with the Ohio Central Rail-road will strike. Now the latter is the base of a triangle, of which the road from Xenia to Galion, and the road from Galion to Pittsburgh, are respectively the sides. The route therefore from Cincinnati to Philadelphia will be less than from Cincinnati to New-York, not only by 145 miles already shown, (taking Galion as the common point of departure,) but also by the difference between the length of the base line from Xenia to Pittsburgh and the two sides of the triangle, just indicated, Galion being its apex.

Without extending these exhibitions of figures, it is apparent from the rail-road connections actually made between the lake country and New-York and Philadelphia respectively, that the distances are very greatly in favor of the latter; and necessarily still more so between Philadelphia and all points farther south. It is useless therefore to multiply figures in proof of this fact. We recognise it as beyond dispute, that this city is even now nearer to the whole West than any of her rivals. Before the close of another year, this advantage will be vastly enhanced. Then the Pennsylvania Central Rail-road will be perfect in its entire length, dispensing with the portage road and all the incidental delays and troubles of its inclined planes. TWELVE HOURS, (instead of eighteen as now,) will then, and *must then*, suffice for the transit of passengers from the Delaware to the Ohio. What other hold, besides this grand work, has Philadelphia upon the commerce of the West? What is her own ability to give it business by the maintenance and extension of that commerce?

The following statement comprises a list of the different rail-roads by which *Norfolk, as the terminus of the Seaboard and Roanoke Rail-road will be connected with the Southern and South-western sections of the United States*, forming continuous lines from Norfolk to Mobile and New-Orleans, and to Memphis, Tenn.

1. The Wilmington and Manchester Rail-road, 162 miles, running from Wilmington, N. C., to Manchester, S. C., uniting with the South Carolina Rail-road, leading to Augusta, Ga., and to Charleston, S. C.

This road is rapidly progressing to completion. When completed, there will be a continuous line of railway from Norfolk, to Va., to Montgomery, Ala., a distance of 868 miles. The steamboat line, from Wilmington to Charleston, will soon be dispensed with, and a large increase of travel over this line may be relied upon, as the time and distance to

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New-Orleans will be essentially diminished.

2. The North Carolina Railroad runs from Raleigh to Salisbury and Charlotte, in North Carolina, about 150 miles in length. The funds for this road are provided; the state subscribed two million of dollars, and private stockholders the remainder. This line, in connection with the road from Charlotte to Columbia, S. C., will make a continuous line of railway, from Norfolk to Columbia, of 435 miles; and will form a connection, in this direction, also, with Montgomery, in Alabama. A survey has also been ordered by the State of North Carolina, for a road from Salisbury to Knoxville, in Tennessee.

3. The Roanoke Valley Rail-road will run from Ridgeway, N. C., on the Raleigh and Gaston Rail-road, to Clarksville, Virginia, and it is proposed to continue this line to Lynchburgh, Va. This road has recently been chartered, and the work placed under contract. It will form, when completed, a continuous line from Norfolk to Lynchburgh, of about 200 miles.

4. The Virginia and Tennessee Railroad, and the East Tennessee and Virginia Rail-road, will form a continuous one from Lynchburgh, Va., to Knoxville in Tennessee, a distance of 350 miles. This line is going forward rapidly, both in Virginia and Tennessee; it passes through a country of great mineral and agricultural resources, and will be a work of much magnitude and importance. The means are provided for its construction.

5. The Hiwassee or the East Tennessee and Georgia Rail-road, runs from Knoxville to Dalton, Georgia, 115 miles in length. This road is in operation. From Dalton to Chattanooga, a part of the State road of Georgia, is also already in operation 40 miles.

6. The Nashville and Chattanooga Rail-road, 150 miles, runs from Nashville, Tenn., to Chattanooga. This road is also rapidly going forward to completion, at a cost of about two and one-half millions of dollars.

7. The Memphis Rail-road will run from a point on this last-named road to Memphis, Tenn., on the Mississippi river, through Huntsville, Tenn., 280 miles, and will probably be finished by the time the other connecting lines are completed. The five last described lines will form a continuous line of railway from Norfolk to Memphis, a thousand miles in extent; the importance of this connection need not be suggested. It is sufficient to trace these lines upon the map, and leave the subject to make its own impression.

The aggregate of the lines above described, now in operation or actively in progress, amounts to more than two thousand miles of railway; all of which will, in a greater or less degree, add to the business of Norfolk, via the Seaboard and Roanoke Rail-road.

A connection between New-York and Norfolk by means of the proposed air-line road would tap an immense traffic, and besides being the most direct, would be the most expeditious line that could be built. It is apparent that it could not prove otherwise than profitable to those engaged in its construction, and the enterprise appears to have every element to insure success.

Through the courtesy of Senator Rusk, of Texas, we are enabled to present a copy of his bill for a *rail-road to the Pacific Ocean*, which was so much discussed at the last session of Congress, but which lies over for future consideration and action. Senator Rusk has bestowed great labor upon this subject.

A bill to provide for the construction of a rail-road and telegraphic line from the valley of the Mississippi to the Pacific ocean.

It shall be the duty of the President of the United States to cause to be constructed, so soon as it may be practicable after the passage of this act, a rail-road and telegraphic line connecting the valley of the Mississippi with the Pacific ocean at such points as he may designate, and upon the terms and conditions hereinafter prescribed. And it shall be the duty of the said President to select the general route for the said rail-road and line, designating the mountain passes between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans through which they shall be constructed, but leaving the intermediate portions to be located by the individuals or companies that shall be employed to construct the said road and line; subject, however, to his approval. The said selection shall be made at as early a day as may be practicable, consistently with the judicious choice of the site of said road, and such other preliminary arrangements as shall insure the speedy prosecution and permanent con-

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struction of the work. And that, in order to obtain the most accurate information on the subject, the President of the United States be, and he is hereby, authorized to employ such military officers and troops as he may deem necessary, and also civil engineers, not exceeding ten in number: *Provided, nevertheless,* That before the said road shall be located or constructed through any state, the consent of the legislature thereof to the provisions contained in this act shall be first had and obtained; and in selecting the site of the said road, the President shall have due regard to the expense and grades thereof, and the intercourse, commerce, military defence, and protection of the whole country.

SEC. 2. Gives right of way of 300 feet and materials for construction.

SEC. 3. That, for the purpose of aiding in the construction of the said rail-road and line of telegraph, there shall be, and are hereby, appropriated and set apart alternate sections of the public lands, designated by odd numbers, for six miles on each side of the said road where the same shall be constructed through any state or states, and for twelve miles on each side of the said road where the same shall be constructed through the territories of the United States; and in cases where the public domain adjacent to the said road may not be sufficient to enable the government to carry into effect the above provisions, then, and in that event, any deficiency that may exist shall be supplied from the public domain nearest to the point at which such deficiency shall exist, and be selected in alternate sections, as aforesaid; and a snm not to exceed twenty millions of dollars, in bonds of the United States, bearing an interest of five per cent. per annum, and redeemable in fifty years; the said lands and bonds to be made available in the manner hereinafter provided.

SEC. 4. Provides for the faithful execution of the work.

SEC. 5. That, so soon as the general route for the said road shall have been selected and determined upon, it shall be the duty of the President of the United States to cause advertisements to be published in at least two of the newspapers in each of the states, specifying the various descriptions of work to be done, and inviting sealed proposals to execute the same, which proposals shall be opened and examined at a time fixed, not exceeding six months after the date of such advertisements, in the presence of the heads of departments and such other persons as may desire to attend; and said road shall be let to the lowest and best bidders, due regard being had to the evidences of their ability to comply with the terms of their contracts, and their trustworthiness in all respects, together with the security they may offer for the faithful performance of their engagements.

SEC. 6. That whenever fifty miles of said road shall have been completed, in a manner satisfactory to the President of the United States, he shall cause a pro rata payment to be made, according to the terms of the contract for the work so completed, in the bonds of the government, issued under the provisions of this act, and by a grant of four-fifths of the public lands to which the completion of the said fifty miles may entitle said contractors, and so on for each successive fifty miles, until the road shall have been completed, and the terms of their contracts complied with, when they shall be entitled to receive the remaining fifth of said public lands; and, in the event of a failure on the part of the contractors to comply with the terms of their contracts and the provisions of this act, the road, together with the appurtenances, including the running machinery and means of transportation, shall be forfeited, and become the property of the United States; and, for the purpose of enabling the President of the United States, at all times, to know whether the provisions of this act and the terms of the contracts are being complied with, he is authorized, from time to time, to appoint a suitable number of engineers, as supervisors of the work, who shall, under his direction, make thorough and minute examinations of the work as it advances, and report to him, as often as required, upon all matters and things submitted to their charge.

SEC. 7 provides for sufficient security and forfeitures for non-execution.

SEC. 8. That, in consideration of the grant of the lands aforesaid, and the payment of the bonds before mentioned, the said company shall at all times, and as often as required, transport on said road, and every part of the same, as soon as any part or the whole may be finished, the mails, troops, seamen, officers of the army and navy, and officers or agents of the government, and of the post-office department, while on duty, arms, am-

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munition, munitions of war, army and navy stores, funds, or property belonging to the government of the United States, free from all charges to the government, giving the United States at all times the preference; and shall also transmit all official messages from the government to any of its officers, or from such officers to the government, over said telegraphic line, free of charge. But should a case of emergency arise, in consequence of a war with any foreign nation, in which the government may require an extraordinary amount of transportation, jeoparding the fair dividends and profits of the contractors, in that event the President is hereby authorized to make an equitable and just allowance for such additional service; and should the President and the company be unable to agree upon the same, then the matter shall be referred to, and be determiued by, Congress.

SEC. 8. The said rail-road and telegraph shall be completed in the shortest reasonable time, not exceeding ten years: that the bidders for the construction of the same shall specify in their proposals the time required to complete said road and line of telegraph, and the number of miles which they propose to complete annually, which shall also be inserted in the contract; and that Congress may at any time, after the expiration of thirty years from the time said road and line of telegraph may be completed, require the said company to surrender to the United States the said road and line of telegraph, with their equipments, appurtenances, and furniture, upon the payment to the said company of the cost of construction of the same, allowing ten per cent. profit upon their investments, deducting from the whole cost of said road the amount of the bonds paid to the said company and the proceeds of the lands granted to them. And Congress may at all times regulate the tolls to be charged upon passengers and freights, so as, with an economical management of said road, not to reduce the profits of said company below eight per cent. upon the investment, deducting therefrom the advances made by the government towards the construction of the same.

SEC. 10. Details of management.

SEC. 11. Congress may authorize connections of this road with other roads.

SEC. 12. Company shall make full annual reports to the secretary of the treasury.

We furnished in vol. xiii., of the Review, p. 523, the resolutions of the *Galveston Texas Convention*, held last summer, on the subject of rail-roads. We now make the following extract from the address prepared by its committee *to the people of Texas:*

"This state has already assumed an important position in the eyes of the world. She has something of an interesting reputation abroad. Texas, *as Texas*, has a history. Texas is known to the world as an empire in extent. She has a public domain of more than 100,000,000 of acres. She has a population abounding more in actual wealth and natural resources, than any equal number of people on the globe. She is now receiving an accession to her substantial population faster than any other state in the Union. She holds out incentives to immigration, that, in their combination, are not equaled elsewhere. Her entire soil is a self-swarding, self-resuscitating soil, covered with nutricious grasses. Her numerous herds, unfed by the hand of man, indicate a wealth that runs wild. Her capacity for producing sugar, cotton, tobacco and other staples of the South, is equaled only by her capacity for grazing, and for the production of fruits, corn and the cereal grains. We can refer to no country that equals Texas in agricultural capacity; and no country in America, whose climate equals hers in health and blandness of atmosphere. But while we refer to the vast extent of the state, the abundance of her resources and the incentives to immigration, it must not escape us that these are to be made available to us through the wisdom of a just and beneficent policy—a policy that shall separate the enterprise of our people from rashness; that shall bind the people in harmony of sentiment and action; that shall be steady and undeviating in its operation, andcertain in its results. Texas has too few in numbers to give efficiency to divided territory and population. She has too much to accomplish to allow of divided effort. If sectional tenacity shall be suffered to confuse the plans of action, nothing essential will be accomplished for many years. If the state hold together, and the people harmonize in concerted action and steady effort, there is no financial achievement, consistent with the vastness of its resources, which the state cannot accomplish."

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ART. XI.—DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRY AND ENTERPRISE.

ALEXANDER MOUTON, OF LOUISIANA, AGRICULTURIST.

With a Portrait.

No. 29.

SEVERAL months ago we selected for our biographical department, from the distinguished agriculturists of Louisiana, the name of A. B. Roman, and take pleasure now in presenting from the same class, Alexander Mouton, a gentleman alike well and favorably known in his own state and out of it.

Mr. Mouton is of Arcadian origin, and was born on the 19th November, 1804, in that part of the county of Attakapas which is now known as the parish of Lafayette. He has continued to reside in this parish, occupying place among its most wealthy and enterprising planters, and most influential and distinguished citizens. A lawyer by profession, having studied in the office of, and afterwards practiced in copartnership with, Judge Simon, he was early attracted into public life, and served for many years in the Legislature of Louisiana, for a part of the time as Speaker of the House of Representatives. In 1837, he was, by a flattering vote, elected to the Senate of the United States to fill the unexpired term of the distinguished and lamented Porter, and also for a full term of six years. In this exalted position he remained, faithfully discharging the duties incumbent upon him, until 1842, when, at the instance of the Democratic Convention of the state, he resigned his seat and entered successfully into the canvass for the gubernatorial chair.

The administration of Governor Mouton for four years was mainly directed to the re-establishment of the financial credit and character of the state, then very much disturbed from the revulsions of 1837–8; the separation of the state from the incubus of its banking system, and the liquidation of several of these banks. It was during his term that the present system of penitentiary management was adopted which has converted that institution into a source of revenue instead of enormous expense. The buildings were enlarged, the convicts put to useful and profitable employment, and a system of discipline adopted, comparing favorably with that of any similar institution in the world. In these labors he was greatly indebted to the zeal and energy of the Hon. R. N. Ogden, then a member of the Legislature, who had taken much pains in examining all the institutions of the North.

Though retired for several years past to the shades of private life and to the congenial pursuits of agriculture, Governor Mouton has taken lively interest in the great improvement of his native state and of the Southwest—has been an active and zealous advocate of the New-Orleans and Opelousas Rail-road; and so highly were his position and services regarded that, on the assembling of the great Southwestern Rail-road Convention in New-Orleans, in January, 1852, he was elected to preside over its deliberations, which he did with credit to himself and to the satisfaction of the large and able delegations present.

In politics he has ever been attached to the democratic party, and was on the electoral ticket in the campaigns of 1828, 1832 and 1836.

A gentleman of high tone and accomplishments, Governor Mouton has the confidence and esteem of a very large portion of the people of Louisiana, without distinction of party, and we trust will long live to enjoy them.

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ART. XII.—SOME EDITORIAL NOTES.

A WORK is announced through the literary press, by a widow lady of brilliant literary abilities, entitled *The North and the South; or, Slavery and its Contrasts*—a tale of real life. It is said to be graphic and truthful in its incidents and details, and ought to make some encroachments upon Uncle Tomdom.

We have received the Annual Report of the *New-York Mercantile Library Society* for 1852. For the past year, the amount of receipts was $10,127 25, which is an increase of $1,545 46 over those of the year previous. There is at present a balance of $1,592 67 in the treasury. The report of the President, Mr. George Peckham, represented the library to be in a prosperous condition, 4,346 volumes having been added to it during the year. This is an increase of 1,389 volumes on the previous year. Of these 190 were presented to the Society. The amount paid for new books was $664 73.

We learn that the Mercantile Library is about to be removed from its present location to new quarters, to be provided by the Clinton Hall Association. The Astor Place Opera House has been bought by Messrs. Wilson G. Hunt and Edm. Coffin, two old and tried friends of this institution, and it is their intention to let the Association have it at the price they have paid, which is considerably less than the sum mentioned.

We are indebted to Job. R. Tyson, LL.D., of Philadelphia, for a pamphlet copy of Letters addressed to him by Edward D. Mansfield, of Cincinnati, upon the *rail-way connections of Philadelphia with the great West*, and shall refer to it hereafter.

Edmund Ruffin, Esq., has delivered an address, of which he has favored us with a copy, to the State Agricultural Society of Virginia, on "*the effects of domestic slavery* on the manners, habits and welfare of the agricultural population of the Southern States, and the slavery of class to class in the Northern States."

The publisher has sent us a copy of Monks' splendid new *Map of North America*, upon which all the great lines of public improvement, &c., are marked, and which is the latest and most complete map of the continent to be obtained.

Dr. Manly, President of the University of Alabama, has made a report to the trustees of that institution on the subject of *college education and organization*, embracing the results of his own experience, as well as of an examination into the merits of the leading institutions of our country. We are happy to receive a copy, and have no doubt its general circulation among the friends of education at the South will do much good.

Prof. Page, J. J. Greenhough, and Chas. L. Fleishman, have commenced the publication in Washington city of a new, handsome and quite important periodical, entitled the "*American Polytechnic Journal*," devoted to science, mechanic arts and agriculture. It will contain records of discoveries, patent laws and decisions, agricultural implements and general treatises. $3 per annum.

We are indebted to the Hon. D. L. Seymour, of New-York, for a copy of his able report upon *Reciprocal Trade* with the British North American Colonies.

T. O. Donnell, 160 Camp-street, New-Orleans, favors us with a copy of the "*Spæwife; or, the Queen's Secret*, a story of the reign of Elizabeth, by Paul Peppergrass, Esq., author of Shandy McGuire, with six illustrations. 2 vols. He also furnishes us from the same house of John Murphy & Co., Baltimore, a copy of the *Life and Writings of the* "*Milford Bard*," who left the reputation and the faults of genius closely linked together. Some of the fugitive pieces in the volume have much merit.

To all that is said in the extract which follows from a letter we have received from a friend and correspondent, upon the subject of *Levees*, we can heartily respond, and trust that the suggestions will arouse our dormant citizens into action:

"The first great want of the agricultural interest, in the river states, is an enlightened and efficient levee system. The State of Louisiana especially is vitally interested in this important subject, and the men who can and who shall devise and carry through a system of protection to the immense capital, which of late years, in particular, has been accumulating upon its fertile alluvion, but which is so fearfully jeopardized every year by the periodical overflow of the Mississippi, will be hailed in all time to come as public benefactors. Enough theories have been spun by writers for the papers and by some for the review in relation to levees, their utility, inutility, &c. What we want is *action*, and we look to you and others like you, wielding a wide influence over the public mind to bring about that action. Your legislature is now in session—the Governor, I understand, (for I have not seen his message,) calls the attention of the legislature to the subject, and recommends its earnest conside-

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ration. Now is the time to produce *action;* and the subject, involving the weightiest interests as it does of the state—its mighty development—its future grandeur and glory in the sisterhood of states, is fit to engage the first minds in the South. Call them out, and let us have fewer speculations and more results. While we are discussing the question of whether levees will answer the end proposed, the States of Mississippi and Arkansas are going on rapidly with their levees above, and preparing to precipitate the floods of waters upon our section—the lower section—of the river. We will be forced to levee or give up our plantations, and transfer millions of capital to other states."

The Church Journal.—A weekly religious paper, published by Pudney & Russell, New-York, and devoted to the interests of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States.

We have received the first and second Nos. of the above, and must candidly admit that, for editorial ability and mechanical execution, the paper far surpasses any of the kind that has ever come under our observation. We can highly recommend it to our Southern friends as containing sound doctrines, and a vast amount of information, both foreign and domestic.

We are indebted to Mr. Morris, bookseller, of Richmond, for a copy of a work, in two handsome volumes, entitled *History of Virginia*, from its discovery and settlement by Europeans to the present time, by Robert R. Howison. Vol. I. contains the history of the colony to the peace of Paris, in 1763. Vol. II. the history of the colony and of the state from 1763 to 1847, with a review of the present condition of Virginia.

Matthew F. Ward, Esq., has placed us under renewed obligations, by the presentation of a copy of a work lately issued by him from the press of Appleton & Co., with the title of "*English Items, or Microscopic Views of England and Englishmen.*" In this volume, Mr. Ward carries the war into Africa, and pays off somewhat in their own coin the English, who have so consistently and perseveringly reviled us through their newspaper press, their literature, and their tourists. Though we think he often carries his warfare into extremes, we can hardly find it necessary to censure when considering how abused or perchance patronized our people constantly are by the upstart pretenders to all the gentility and refinement in the world, who come among us as precious specimens of the people we are to imitate and admire. There is greatness and glory in England, and there are high-toned and noble men, but rarely have we seen any among the English who visit our shores. Mr. Ward's work contains twelve chapters, on the English Church, custom-house, scenery, writers on America, manners, gentility, heraldry, etc., upon all of which heads he introduces evidence to prove there is not much we should desire to imitate. In the chapter upon English writers, he incorporates elaborate extracts proving their ignorance, bigotry, ingratitude and falsehood of their account of our country. We could have wished Mr. Ward had tempered his book a little; but really, having failed in every other method of dealing with the English, we do not know but that this war *offensive* will have salutary effects. When stones are to be thrown, it will be found that glass houses are plentiful enough on the other side of the ocean.

It will be recollected by our readers that the *Southwestern Commercial Convention* will meet on 6th JUNE next at Memphis, and we trust that large delegations will be in attendance from all the South and West.

☞ We trust that our friends who intend ordering the INDUSTRIAL RESOURCES will do so without delay, as the edition is small, and we desire to close it. As an evidence of how little the South has sustained us in this most expensive and laborious publication, it is only necessary to state that the sales up to this time, north of the Potomac, have been sixfold larger than at the South. Indeed, the subscription list to the Review is almost as large in New-York as in New-Orleans. The Industrial Resources embrace every article of value contained in the 13 volumes of the Review, besides an immense amount of other matter, brought down to the first of January, 1853.

CRESCENT SEEDLING PERPETUAL.

THIS is a new American seedling, raised by Mr. Henry Lawrence, of New-Orleans, by crossing the "British Queen" and "Keen's" seedling. It is the first perpetual strawberry of large size and first-rate quality ever raised. For six months this remarkable fruit continues bearing. "I neither cut off the blossoms," says Mr. L., "nor any part of them, to increase its bearing—it is one continued crop from the first, and if you want to know how it bears after four months fruiting, a friend has just (May 9th) counted from thirty-two to forty-two berries on four successive plants, the largest measuring five and a-half inches, and the average being three inches in circumference."

No doubt this variety will greatly extend the strawberry season in the North, making it an immense acquisition to strawberry growers, and in hybridizing. The almost utter impossibility of getting plants alive from New-Orleans will make this kind scarce for some time. It has been ordered from all quarters, but very few plants have been received alive.

Dr. Bayne, the famous strawberry-grower at Alexandria, D. C., ordered $25 worth, but succeeded in "saving but *one plant*, which," he remarks, "$25 would not buy." Mr. Pardee of Palmyra, New-York, after repeated efforts succeeded in saving a few plants, and is disposing of them in pots at $2 each.

A supply of these can be had from Mr. Henry Lawrence, at $8 per hundred.

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DE BOW'S REVIEW:

A MONTHLY JOURNAL

OF

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ART. I.—INDEPENDENCE OF CUBA.

[THE subject of Cuba has certainly interest enough to warrant us in inserting the views of intelligent contributors, whether *in every respect* we agree with them or not. We are always disposed to have every important subject fairly discussed.]—ED.

IN our former article, published in the January number of the Review, we expressed the opinion that the best position which Cuba could occupy, would be that of an independent government, free from the control either direct or indirect of any other power. At the time that article was written, the correspondence between our government and other governments concerning Cuba, had not been published, and the discussion in the Senate of the United States, relative to Cuban affairs, had not taken place. We have, however, seen nothing, either in the diplomatic correspondence or in the Congressional debates, to cause us to change our views as expressed in that article, but, on the contrary, much to confirm and strengthen them. There seems to be no difference of opinion as to the propriety of the course pursued by our government in rejecting the proposals made by the governments of Great Britain and France, for a triparte convention in reference to Cuba. This act of our government, doubtless, meets with the hearty approbation of the whole people of the United States. The proposition of these two governments was not merely that neither Great Britain, France, nor the United States, should either now, or at any future time, obtain possession of Cuba; but it went further, and required those governments to "bind themselves to discountenance all such attempts to that effect, on the part of any power or individual whatever."—By the provisions of that treaty, had it been agreed upon, the United States would have been under the necessity, in connection with the other two governments, of resisting any attempt on the part of the people of Cuba themselves to render their island independent of the crown of Spain; such, in our opinion, is the proper construction of the proposed treaty, and such would, beyond all question, those two governments have placed upon it. Even if our government had no desire to come into possession of Cuba, either now or hereafter, still, we could not, without being false to our principles and duties, permit any other government to interfere in a contest between the people of Cuba and the Spanish government; much less could we ourselves become a party to any such interference with a view to continue the dominion of Spain over Cuba.

Independently of the fact that it may, at some future time, under a different set of circumstances from those now existing, become necessary for the United States, as a measure of safety, to acquire Cuba, the objectionable feature we have just alluded to would have been sufficient to cause our government to refuse to enter into any such treaty as the one proposed. Whether we shall acquire Cuba or not; or, if we do, at what time, and upon what terms, are questions solely between Spain, Cuba, and the

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United States, and in which we cannot recognize the right of any other governments to interfere. However they may view it, it seems to us too clear to admit of discussion, that both Great Britain and France would be benefited by the annexation of Cuba to the United States. The commercial advantages which they would enjoy with Cuba, would then be much greater than they are at this time. The development of the resources of Cuba and the increased productions consequent upon its annexation to this country, would greatly benefit all the commercial nations of the earth, and scarcely any more than Great Britain and France. The burdens which are now placed upon Cuban industry are a serious detriment to the whole commercial world, and the removal of these burdens, which would be the sure result of the annexation of that island to the United States, would operate as a blessing to all nations. For these reasons we cannot see why either Great Britain or France should oppose the purchase of Cuba by the United States. But in determining whether it would be good policy in our government to acquire Cuba, there are other things to be considered besides the effect of that measure upon England and France. We are to consider whether we would ourselves be benefited, and whether such an acquisition can be honorably and safely made. We think we are warranted in saying, that the almost entire public sentiment of the United States is against any other than a fair and honorable acquisition of Cuba, no matter how desirable that acquisition may be. Such are the views which the debates in Congress and the diplomatic correspondence of our government show to be the prevailing public sentiment of the country. Hostile expeditions against the Island of Cuba, made with a view of wresting it from the crown of Spain, do not meet with the sanction either of the government or people of the United States.

Many of our statesmen anxiously desire Cuba, and are willing, as they themselves say, to give an extravagant price for it; but there are none of any character who wish to violate our treaty stipulations, and to obtain it by unfair, clandestine, and violent means. There is but little doubt that the present government of Cuba is one of the worst and most oppressive in existence; yet, if the people of Cuba are contented with it, or are unwilling to make an attempt to throw it off, it is not our business, if they do not wish freedom, to interfere in the regulations of other governments, under the pretext of giving liberty to the oppressed. If we may judge from the history of the past expeditions, we have every reason to believe the people of Cuba have very little sympathy with those who go there for the purpose of enabling them to throw off the dominion of Spain. If they are not contented with their burdens, they at least seem not to have energy and spirit enough to cause them to make an attempt to get clear of them. How long this state of things will continue, we cannot say. Unless, however, the Spanish government shall greatly change its policy in reference to Cuba, we cannot believe she will long continue to hold dominion over that island. Will she do this? That is the question. But even if she should change her policy, will she not sooner or later find it to be her interest to abandon her American colonies, on account of its being more expensive than profitable to retain them? Would it not be more advantageous to her, even now, to establish the independence of Cuba, than to hold it as a colony? Great Britain, it is universally admitted, has been more benefited by the United States as an independent government, than she would have been by continuing them as colonies. We believe the time is rapidly approaching when all the European governments will find it to be their true policy, to abandon all their colonial possessions on this continent, and to permit them to become independent. We are satisfied that Great Britain would be greatly benefited by permiting Canada to dissolve her political connection with the British government, and to become an independent nation. There may be, and perhaps are, reasons for the establishment of colonies by Great Britain and other European nations, but when these colonies are firmly established, and become able to maintain a separate and independent existence, then the mother country, no less than the colonies, will be benefited by recognizing and securing that independence.

One of the main objects of colonization is the extension of commerce, for, by the establishment of foreign colonies, the mother country not only finds an

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outlet for a portion of its surplus population, but also enlarges its commerce and extends its trade. But when, in the course of time, it is ascertained that these objects will be better accomplished by recognizing the independence of the colonies, and permitting them to establish a government of their own, then any wise government will pursue this course. After the colonies become independent nations, they will naturally, on account of their sympathies with the mother country, be more apt to trade with her than with any other nation; if she has pursued a wise, liberal, and just course towards them. This is owing to the fact, that, though they be different governments, they are similar to each other in tastes, feelings, laws, institutions, and race, and, although two nations, they will be in many respects one people. We, therefore, believe that many of the European governments will eventually give up most, if not all, of their colonial possessions, finding the expenses of maintaining them greater than the profits derived from them as colonies. Such, we think, is even now the position of Spain in reference to Cuba. The expense of the large naval and military establishments, which Spain finds it necessary to keep in Cuba, together with the other expenses incident to the government of the island, are now, perhaps, almost as great as the revenues derived from the island. Were Cuba independent, all this heavy expenditure would be dispensed with, and her commerce with Spain, as well as with other nations, would be greatly increased. The people of Cuba, being of Spanish origin, would naturally prefer trading with Spain, rather than with any other nation, if she would pursue a liberal course towards them, and would permit them to become independent. Spain seems to feel that her hold upon Cuba is very precarious, and that is, perhaps, the reason of the harsh and stringent measures adopted by her in reference to that island. But the measures which she adopts are the very ones most likely to produce the result which she seems so much to dread. She may, by her own imprudent course, provoke a war with the United States; and if she does, the inevitable result of that war will be not only the loss of Cuba without any compensation, but the annexation of that island to the United States. If the people of the United States are not provoked into a war with Spain, they will not attempt to get Cuba except by purchase; even if they do that, of which we have many doubts; but if a war should take place between Spain and the United States, those in this country who now believe it would be unwise to acquire Cuba in any manner, could not prevent its acquisition, even if they did not themselves become convinced that, with all its evils, acquisition was our only alternative. If then Spain wished to prevent the annexation of Cuba to the United States, she would do well not to bring on a war with the United States; for we are satisfied that our government will not engage in a war with Spain, unless the war is provoked by her. This government is not so lost to all high and honorable feelings as to engage in a war with Spain merely to gratify those who, under the pretext of giving liberty to the oppressed, wish to make a conquest of Cuba; but Spain may, by her own rash and imprudent course, force this government to take up arms in defence of her honor, and the rights of her citizens.

In that event we consider the annexation of Cuba to the United States as a sure result. But this is not the only way in which the same effect may be produced. Should Great Britain, or France, attempt to intercept any citizens of the United States, who might be supposed to be engaged in an expedition against Cuba, the result would be war. For our government cannot and will not permit Great Britain and France to take upon themselves the protection of the Spanish authorities in Cuba against expeditions from this country. Those who engage in such expeditions, become liable to their own government, and the government of Spain. If they fail, they will have to pay the penalty of their own misconduct; but they are in no sense responsible to the governments of Great Britain and France. These governments have no right to interfere with them in any way, and if they do so, it would be a just cause of offence to our government. By some such interference as this, war may be produced between the United States and Great Britain, or France; and the result of that war would, we think, be the conquest of Cuba, by the United States, and its incorporation into our Union. The at-all-

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hazards advocates of Cuban annexation in this country, are aware that such results would follow a war between the United States and any of the great maritime powers; and, therefore, they are not at all unwilling to see such a war commenced.

What the consequences of such a war would be to the island of Cuba, we do not think it very difficult to foresee. Its commerce would be seriously injured, and its value, as a producing country, would be greatly diminished. If we should then gain Cuba, as we believe would be the case, we would have to take it stript of its wealth, and deprived of much of its present value.

Cuba, as she now is, contributes much to the commerce of the United States. Our imports into Cuba amount to more than $8,000,000 per annum, and our exports from that country amount to between thirteen and seventeen millions. These would be greatly increased if the Spanish government would reduce its rates of duties, and would give to the people of Cuba a milder and a more just government, but would be in a great degree destroyed in the event of a war for the acquisition of that island. If Spain would give to Cuba a good government, or if Cuba were independent, the United States then would enjoy most, if not all, the commercial advantages that could be obtained by its annexation to this country. Not only would the United States be benefited by a change in the policy of Spain towards Cuba, but so would also Great Britain and France. We, therefore, think that those nations, instead of endeavoring to form a treaty with the United States, for the purpose of securing to the crown of Spain the island of Cuba, would be better engaged in using their efforts to induce the Spanish government to change its policy towards Cuba, or to permit it to become independent. They would thus be more wisely and properly employed than in issuing orders to their naval officers to protect Cuba from hostile expeditions or in proposing tripartite conventions in reference to Cuba. Spain would doubtless be much more willing to see Cuba independent, than to see her annexed to the United States; and one great objection she has to the acknowledgment of her independence is the fear that she would in that event enter into the American Union. If she could be assured that such would not be the result, she would, we believe, be willing before long to see Cuba independent.

This is, in our opinion, the best position that she could occupy; and were she now an independent government, we do not believe there would be as much danger of her annexation to the United States, as there is under existing circumstances. Many of the arguments in favor of annexation would then be removed. She would then be in no danger of being transferred by Spain to any of the great maritime powers, to prevent which, many of our people wish our government to acquire her immediately. There would then be no danger of a war between the United States and any European power, growing out of an attempt to free Cuba from the dominion of Spain. The institution of slavery would then be under the control of the Cubans themselves, without the danger of foreign interference, and thus one great cause of apprehension to the people of the southern states would be removed. The slave trade would be effectually abolished, and many of the harsh and forbidding features which now characterize slavery there would cease, and it would assume more of the humane and domestic features of that institution, as it exists in the southern states of this Union. The commanding military position of the island would not then endanger any of the nations engaged in the commerce of the Gulf of Mexico. This gateway of the Gulf would be open to all nations, and thus the rivalries and jealousies of the great maritime nations on account of Cuba would be at an end.

If Cuba can remain safely in the hands of Spain without endangering the peace of the world, she can much more safely be independent, enjoying the friendship of all nations, opening her ports alike to all, and enabling them to reap the rich rewards of an extensive commerce with her. Were Cuba independent, there would then be no pretext for hostile expeditions against that island, under the disguise of wishing to give liberty to the oppressed, and consequently the peace of the world would not then, as it is now, be endangered by such expeditions, and thus many of the delicate questions which are likely to arise between the great maritime powers, in reference to Cuba, would be settled.

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Mr. Calhoun, whose words of wisdom should never be forgotten, said "We have now most of the commercial advantages without the expense of administering the government." If this is the case with Cuba, as at present governed, how much better would it be if she were independent. We would then have all the commercial advantages without the danger and expense of administering the government. We cannot see any possible advantage that we would have from the annexation of Cuba, that we would not have from its being independent.—The reasons urged in favor of annexation are far from being satisfactory. We are told that we must get possession of that island, to keep the gateway of the gulf from being closed, and our commerce seriously injured. However this may have been formerly, that danger is now removed. Great Britain and France both disclaim any intention to acquire Cuba; and they both well know, that any attempt of the kind would lead to a war with this country.

Again, we are told that our revenues would be increased by annexation.—This may be true, but still it furnishes no argument in favor of that measure. Our revenues are already sufficiently large, and there is more danger of our having too much money in the treasury, than there is of having too little. A surplus revenue is a much greater injury than benefit. This is upon the supposition that we are to get Cuba without any internal or external difficulties; and even then, we do not see that we are to be so much benefited; but if we are to get it at the end of a war, then there would be no danger of a surplus revenue.

It is sometimes said the South will be strengthened by the acquisition of Cuba. This is a fatal mistake. That island has now a population consisting of 600,000 whites, 400,000 slaves, and over 200,000 free blacks, upon an area much smaller than many of our southern states. There is more land in cultivation in Cuba, in proportion to the whole extent of its territory, than there is in the southern states of this Republic. The natural increase of the present population of Cuba will be sufficient for all purposes in that island. Those of our citizens who wish cheap lands would greatly prefer going to our western states and territories, than going to Cuba, even if it were a part of our own country. If our object is to acquire territory, to furnish homes for our growing population, we had much better acquire a portion of Mexico than Cuba. The objection to the acquisition of Cuba, growing out of the fact that it is settled by a population differing from us in race, institutions, laws, religion, manners, habits and feelings, is insuperable. It may be, and has been said, that if we owned the island it would soon be Americanized. We ask, is this reasonable? If there were only a few there of the Spanish race, this might be the case; but we think it idle to talk of Americanizing an island having a population of 600,000 Spaniards, or descendants of Spaniards, upon an area less than that of either Tennessee, Alabama, or any of the southern states. The fact is, that but few of our people comparatively would go to Cuba to live, even if it were a part of this confederacy; since so many of our states and territories furnish so many more inducements and advantages to those desirous to emigrate, than Cuba would. That island would remain, as now, Spanish in its population and Spanish in its character.

The situation of Cuba is not similar to that of Louisiana when we purchased it. There were but few French or Spanish inhabitants in that territory when it was purchased, and the area of Louisiana was much greater than that of Cuba. In 1810, several years after the purchase, there were less than 100,000 inhabitants in Louisiana, and there are more than 1,000,000 in Cuba. Even at this time Louisiana has only about half the population of Cuba upon a much larger extent of territory. The cases, therefore, are not similar. The annexation of Cuba would not restore the numerical strength of the South in the Union, because even after its acquisition the North would have a large majority in Congress; and when we reflect that the annexation of Cuba would be made a pretext, on the part of the North, for annexing Canada and other free territories, ought not the South to take care not to furnish the excuse? With what grace can those in the South, who advocate the annexation of Cuba, oppose the proposition which will certainly be made to annex Canada? The same or similar arguments will be made in favor of annexing Canada that are now made in regard to Cuba. We will find it as easy to get Canada, whether by

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purchase, conquest, or any other means, as to get Cuba. Great Britain would be as willing to surrender Canada as Spain will Cuba, and a war for Cuba will lead to a war for Canada. Great Britain would, in all probability, as soon see Canada annexed to this country as to see Cuba, and would be as apt to resist by force the one as the other. Canada will become independent as soon as Cuba, and will be as apt to apply for admission into our Union. We believe the time is coming when, if no violent means are resorted to, Great Britain and Spain will acknowledge the independence of both Canada and Cuba, and in any event the acquisition of Cuba would lead most certainly to that of Canada. Let the South, then, unless it desires the annexation of Canada, oppose also the acquisition of Cuba. We do not say but that a state of things might arise when it would be necessary for us to take both, but such is not now the case; that "overruling necessity" is not now upon us. What then is to become of Cuba? Let her remain in the hands of Spain or become independent. We are aware the opinion has been expressed, that Cuba cannot exist as an independent government. Why not? Cuba has all the elements necessary for a separate and independent existence. Her wealth and population are sufficient; her population amounts to more than 1,200,000, her exports amount to about thirty-two millions of dollars, and her imports to something more. Why then can she not maintain an independent existence? Are her people incapable of self-government? Surely those who are such warm advocates for Cuban emancipation do not think so, else they would not be so anxious to free them from oppression. They certainly would not wish to incorporate into our Union a people incapable of self-government. If they are capable of self-government, they can maintain a separate existence as a nation, for it will be the interest and policy of all the great maritime powers to maintain her independence. Her expenses will not be by any means so great as the expense of governing the island at present, all of which has to be borne by the Cubans. There is then no reason why Cuba may not maintain an independent existence unless it arise from the character of her population. If no other than a despotic government is suitable to that people, then they ought to remain under the dominion of Spain; but if this is not the case, then they may maintain a separate existence. In neither case is there any necessity for annexing her to the United States. We trust that the people will be found capable of self-government, for we think the time is coming when they will have to make the experiment. We hope Cuba will either remain a colony of Spain or become independent. We are not one of those who think that national progress consists alone in accessions of territory. The proper improvement of that which we now possess is of more importance than unlimited extension. Commerce and not conquest is our true policy. In this article we have not alluded to the proposition made by our government in 1848 for the purchase of Cuba. Reasons then existed, or were thought to exist, making it our duty to acquire it to prevent its falling into the hands of the British government. That is not now the case. That danger has passed. The reasons that then existed do not exist at this time; circumstances have materially changed; and what might have been a wise and prudent proposition at that time might be unwise now. It is idle to think of purchasing Cuba from Spain. She will not sell it to the United States, and we believe that she would rather permit it to become independent than sell it to us for a hundred millions, because she would retain her trade with that island as an independent nation, which she would lose in the event of its annexation to this country. We therefore think it would be the true policy of our government, as well as of the governments of Great Britain and France, to use their efforts to prevail on Spain either to modify her policy towards Cuba or to establish its independence.

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ART. II.—INLAND COMMERCE OF THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY AND THE ST. LAWRENCE BASIN.*

The inland commerce of our country has attained such immensity of importance, as to occupy much of the attention of the shrewd, sagacious, and far-seeing capitalists, statesmen, and merchants of the day. And yet, this commerce is generally but very badly appreciated, very imperfectly understood, and its importance greatly underrated by the vast majority of those who would wish to be classed with one or the other of those coteries just mentioned. It may be well understood that the great chain of American lakes have their natural outlet through the river and gulf of the St. Lawrence into the Atlantic. And it is no less a fact of general appreciation, that the Ohio, Illinois, Tennessee, Cumberland, Iowa, Missouri, Wisconsin, Rock Island, Fever and Des Moines rivers, with many others, are tributaries to the great Mississippi, through whose channel these waters find their way to the Gulf of Mexico—more than four thousand miles distant from the outlet of the waters of the lakes at the Gulf of St. Lawrence. But it may not be a matter of such general knowledge, that the sources of these respective drains between the Alleghanies and the Mississippi, in the States of New-York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Wisconsin, are to be found in the most intimate association, with their branches interlocking each other. Indeed the dividing line of the watersheds in these states is so slightly marked by nature in the physical construction of the face of the country, that it is not unfrequently the case, when the spring opens amid frequent rains, melting snows, and disembodied springs of the earth, ejecting their contents at the bidding of the departing frost, causing temporary freshets, to see their waters unite in harmony and flow to the lakes sometimes, and at others to the rivers, as the attraction may, for the time being, prove strongest. By this operation the southern gulf is robbed, at times, of a portion of the waters apparently designed for it; and again, the northern one is made to suffer a similar depredation. But in the end probably no great deficit is suffered on either side. We merely mention these natural phenomena, as typical of other features of this most interesting section of country. It is well known that the two great combinations of water here alluded to drain the whole extended country between the Alleghany Mountains on the east, and the Rocky range on the west; that portion of it drained by the Mississippi and its tributaries being familiarly known as the Mississippi Valley; and that bordering the lakes and the St. Lawrence, as the great St. Lawrence basin. And it is also a fact, with which geographers are quite familiar, that so continuous and uninterrupted is the Alleghany chain, that these channels are the only navigable outlets for the products of the valley and basin to the seaboard. But we have already said that no very perceptible elevation of the earth marked the dividing line between the sources of the rivers and those of the lakes; and it seems not improbable that this fact, and its consequent, the interchanging of the waters of the two, were designed to lead to that artificial union of these waters for commercial purposes which has already taken place at various points. Hence, as we have seen the waters taking the opposite of their natural course, in obedience to some freak of nature, so in consequence of slight changes in the markets, or the prices of freights, we observe the products of the earth seek a northern or southern outlet to the seaboard. The result is a blending by one common channel of the two great arteries of commerce which drain the basin and valley of their rich and varied products, and through which they are in turn supplied with those necessaries and luxuries which are received in exchange.

This continuous channel forms a vast road-way, open to the common use of all, from the Atlantic to the Gulf of Mexico; and this stupendous highway, with its numerous branches, outlets and tributaries, is the theatre of the great bulk of our internal commerce. It is no part of our present purpose to enter into a history of this inland commerce, or to detail its value. We have daily evidence before our eyes, to convince us of the rapidity of the one, and the im-

* By a contributor to the Rail-road Journal. The reader will complete the tables for 1852, should he desire it, by referring to the last five or six numbers of the Review.

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mensity of the other; and the Atlantic cities are in full enjoyment of the increase of wealth enuring from the trade occasioned by it.

The end of this article will be answered by an examination of the face of the country, and the several routes, artificial as well as natural, leading to the seaboard, with a brief comparative synopsis of their business, which may serve to show in some degree their relative importance.

The area of country embraced in the interior valley and basin has something over nine hundred thousand square miles, with a population in 1850 of upwards of thirteen millions people, or about fourteen to the square mile. The land is nearly all of the most rich and fertile nature, susceptible of a very high state of cultivation. The face of that portion of the country drained by the Mississippi is nearly level, causing very few rapids in that stream or its tributaries sufficiently difficult to render serious obstructions to navigation. The surface of the river for miles north of the gulf, is above the surrounding country, which is only kept from inundation by a sort of embankment. These features, of course, render the whole section peculiar in its adaptation to the construction of railways from the river back to the interior, at a trifling cost.

That division of the above area, known as the St. Lawrence basin or lake country, is slightly different in its conformation, having in some parts a rolling surface, in others prairie, and in a few instances mountainous, but all bearing a rich soil, which yields a bountiful return for the labors of the husbandman. The first interruption to navigation in the lake chain, commencing at the western extremity of Lake Superior, and passing eastward, is presented by the Falls in the St. Marie River at the Sault. A canal is about to be constructed around these rapids with sufficient capacity to pass the largest lake craft. It will be about one mile in length, and must have a lift of lockage equal to about nineteen feet. It will cost nearly half a million dollars.

Land has been appropriated by the general government of the United States, to aid the State of Michigan in building this work. Should this state proceed to construct the canal, however, it will still be a state work, connecting United States waters, so that vessels sailing under United States protection will have to be under tribute to Michigan in passing this rapid. It is to be regretted, therefore, that as the general government is to stand the expense, it had not made the improvement on its own account, and retained it under its own control. The Canadian government have also the route surveyed on the Canada side for a canal, and will probably proceed at once to construct one of the largest capacity. The engineer recommends that the locks be 350 feet long in the chamber, 66 feet in breadth, and 10 feet in depth to the sills. Locks of smaller dimensions than the above would prove of little use five or ten years hence; and if Michigan is not soon awake to the importance of her responsibility in this matter, Canada will have a better channel the more speedily completed. There is at present little freight passing from Lake Superior to the lower lakes, owing to those obstructions, but the Lake Superior country is rich in mines of iron and copper of the best quality in the known world, needing only the improvement contemplated to make them available.

Passing down Lake Huron and St. Clair River, its outlet, we reach Lake St. Clair, which is a shoal water and threaded with an exceedingly narrow and circuitous channel, carrying from eight to nine feet of water. Though not an interruption to the navigation of the Lakes, the St. Clair flats are a serious obstruction, at times, always requiring skilful pilots, daylight, and vessels of light draft to pass them in safety without lighting. The next impediment to lake navigation is the Falls of Niagara between Lakes Erie and Ontario. The fall here is nearly three hundred feet; and together with some rapids in the river St. Lawrence, and a desire of the people of the city of New-York to secure a connection with the interior, led to the projection and construction of the Erie canal, connecting the waters of Lake Erie at Buffalo with those of the Hudson at Albany, and forming an artificial outlet to the Atlantic for the Upper Lakes. The opening of this new outlet was soon followed by the construction of the Welland Canal, on the part of the Canadian government, through Canada, in order to admit the passage of vessels from Lake Erie to Ontario, and secure the lake commerce to the St. Lawrence. The St. Lawrence canals around the rapids in that river

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were also constructed by the same government, to give free passage to vessels to Montreal, Quebec and the Ocean. The State of New-York, upon the completion of the Welland, constructed the Oswego Canal in order to reach the trade of Lake Ontario, and the Champlain Canal was also constructed to compass the commerce of the Lake Champlain and direct it to the Hudson and New-York.

The Canadians also connected St. John's and the St. Lawrence rivers by improvements which admit the passage of vessels from the St. Lawrence to Lake Champlain. Thus we see the St. Lawrence, the natural outlet for the waters of the lakes, has been made navigable, so that vessels may load at Chicago and without transhipment proceed to the Ocean; but it is also to be seen that this natural outlet has been tapped at Lake Erie, at Lake Ontario, and at the St. Lawrence, by water routes, to divert the commerce of the West to the Atlantic, through the Hudson instead of the St. Lawrence.

This northern or lake route has then these two outlets to the seaboard, while Pennsylvania, through her canals and railways, form another northern outlet for a small portion of the trade of the upper Ohio and a portion of the lake trade, did not those mountains almost preclude the possibility of a continuous water route. The heavy inclined planes now used in passing their summit can never be made serviceable in the transportation of through freight, and even a railway on more favorable grades, such as soon will be substituted, will be found far inferior to the capacity of the canal on either side of the ridge. Could a tunnel be made through the mountains for the passage of a capacious canal there would be a large portion of the commerce of basin and valley seek that route to the ocean; but as it is, we shall see that for the transportation of heavy and bulky articles of produce railways bear a very insignificant comparison to canals, even when constructed on easy grades, and the disparity is manifold greater on such a road as the Portage Railway in Pensylvania over the mountains. This, however, is the third water outlet to the Atlantic. We have compiled some statistics of these different routes of trade from the great interior which we will here present. First, it will be necessary to premise that the Mississippi and the Hudson, being the oldest routes, are by far the most important, so far as the amount of their commerce is concerned, and also have the most systematic mode of keeping their returns. We are therefore enabled to give their business for a series of years, while that of the St. Lawrence and Pennsylvania canals can be given for only one year, and that but imperfectly, a mere estimate upon the basis of tonnage and valuation of the property transported on the New-York State canals. Whether these two routes can hold out in the lead they have thus far maintained, depends almost entirely upon the management of the canal policy in the State of New-York. Canada is fully awake to the importance of training the trade of the basin for the St. Lawrence, and making Montreal and Quebec the depots. No pains or expense will be spared by her government to secure the laudable and legitimate objects. Time alone will decide the result; whether the Empire State will suffer her prize in the western trade to grow no larger by the efforts of her neighbors to divert the increase from her public works, or whether she will prepare to transact all the business which offers, as cheaply and as speedily as any one else, by enlarging her canals to such a capacity as will admit steam for a propelling power.

Value of Property received at the Seaboard, via the St. Lawrence, Hudson, Portage Rail-r'd, and Mississippi.

Years.	St. Lawrence.	Hudson.	Portage Rail-road.	Mississippi.
1851	$9,153,580	$53,927,508	$125,035	$108,051,708
1850	———	55,474,637	———	106,924,083
1849	———	52,275,521	———	96,897,863
1848	———	50,983,907	———	81,989,692
1847	———	73,092,414	———	79,779,151
1846	———	51,105,256	———	90,033,256
1845	———	45,452,321	———	77,193,464
1844	———	34,183,167	———	55,196,122
1843	———	28,453,408	———	60,094,716
1842	———	22,751,013	———	53,782,054
1841	———	27,225,322	———	45,716,045
Total	$9,153,580	$484,924,474	$125,035	$857,658,164

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Of the receipts at New-Orleans, cotton, hemp, tobacco, sugar, molasses, pork, bacon, and lard, form the leading articles, the former great staple constituting nearly one-half the whole value of her imports from the interior. Of sugar and molasses the whole estimated crop is included, much of which, of course, is never landed on the levee at New-Orleans, though it enters into the commerce of the city in the shape of commissions, advances, and sales.

Value of Cotton, Hemp, Tobacco, Sugar, Molasses, Pork, Bacon, and Lard, at New-Orleans, during a Series of Years, ending September 1st.

Years.	Cotton.	Hemp.	Tobacco.	Sugar.
1851	$48,592,222	$257,235	$7,291,765	$11,827,350
1850	48,756,764	452,088	7,736,600	12,678,180
1849	41,886,150	695,840	6,166,400	12,396,150
1848	30,844,314	436,832	3,938,290	8,800,000
1847	35,200,375	410,096	3,430,544	9,600,000
1846	32,589,536	903,570	3,604,468	9,800,000
1845	33,716,256	309,800	4,144,562	10,265,750
1844	23,501,712	462,740	3,697,390	9,000,000
1843	——	——	——	——
1842	——	——	——	——
1841	24,425,115	18,165	3,699,160	3,600,000

Years.	Molasses.	Pork.	Bacon.	Lard.
1851	$4,026,000	$5,250,541	$6,348,622	$3,925,844
1850	2,625,000	4,134,632	5,879,470	3,381,450
1849	2,400,000	6,632,554	2,992,787	5,024,340
1848	2,288,000	6,621,911	2,989,385	4,970,113
1847	1,920,000	3,934,047	2,098,700	3,611,050
1846	1,440,000	4,511,162	2,935,349	3,804,575
1845	1,710,000	3,666,054	1,671,855	2,729,581
1844	1,260,000	2,681,172	906,970	1,767,211
1843	——	——	——	——
1842	——	——	——	——
1841	450,000	1,542,467	521,912	1,133,919

The year 1851, in the above table, ended September 1st, 1852, and so of all the rest, relatively, as that is the date of the commencement of the business year in New-Orleans. It will be observed, that the above eight enumerations comprise, on the average, nearly four-fifths of the whole value of imports for a series of years, the remaining fifth being composed of numerous less important articles.

Value of each Class of Property reaching Tide-water on the Hudson during a Series of Years, ending December 31st.

Years.	Products of the Forest.	Agriculture.	Manufactures.	Merchandise.	Other articles.
1851	$10,160,656	$36,394,913	$4,335,783	$329,423	$2,706,733
1850	10,315,117	38,311,546	3,960,864	63,615	2,323,495
1849	7,192,706	38,455,456	3,899,238	508,048	2,319,983
1848	6,909,015	37,336,290	3,834,360	593,619	2,210,623
1847	8,798,873	54,624,849	6,024,518	517,594	3,127,080
1846	8,589,291	33,662,818	4,805,799	276,072	3,770,476
1845	7,759,596	27,612,281	3,432,259	88,197	3,559,658
1844	7,716,032	21,020,065	3,489,570	86,153	2,328,526
1843	5,956,474	18,211,629	2,561,159	56,224	1,667,952

This gives some idea of the "down" trade, or the value of the products of the interior which are exported to the seaboard. These products being easily defined, and put up generally for transportation in uniform packages, their value is easily arrived at; but that of merchandise, sundries, &c., shipped from the seaboard to the interior, is more difficult to obtain. The following estimates, however, have been made by competent persons, which are probably very fair approximations, though, we think, on the average they are too low. They are as follows:

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Value of Property sent from the Seaboard to the Interior, via the St. Lawrence, Hudson, Portage Rail-road, and Mississippi.

Years.	St. Lawrence.	Hudson.	Portage Rail-road.	Mississippi.
1851	$10,956,763	$80,739,899	$2,779,751	$12,958,294
1850	—	74,826,999	—	10,885,775
1849	—	78,481,941	—	10,050,697
1848	—	77,477,781	—	9,380,439
1847	—	77,878,766	—	9,222,504
1846	—	64,628,474	—	7,222,941
1845	—	55,453,998	—	7,345,010
1844	—	53,142,403	—	7,826,739
1843	—	42,258,488	—	8,170,015
1842	—	32,314,790	—	8,031,190
1841	—	56,798,447	—	10,256,322*

In this latter table, it will be observed, that the estimates for the St. Lawrence and Portage Rail-road are only for last year, while those of the New-York State Canals and New-Orleans are for eleven years. In the case of New-York the figures of the Auditor of the Canal Department are taken, whereas in that of New-Orleans it is estimated that her shipments to the interior equal her foreign importations. This may be wide of the mark either way, but it is the only method which presents itself as an approximation. Having seen the value of "down trade" by the different routes, we will now present the "down" tonnage, naming some of the principal articles for 1851 only:

Articles.	St. Lawrence. Tons.	Hudson. Tons.	Portage Rail-road. Tons.	Mississippi. Tons.
Lumber	62,351	711,731	10,100	—
Timber	9,895	84,755	—	—
Shingles	217	7,185	75	2
Staves	9,177	77,652	—	58,552
Furs	—	242	—	500
Ashes	5,576	7,271	—	—
Flour	70,966	362,714	7	100,138
Wheat	16,867	94,910	—	5,193
Corn	3,052	221,633	—	109,989
Oats	1,746	57,509	—	6,949
Barley	69	93,426	—	—
Rye	284	8,083	—	—
Cotton	11	110	—	321,566
Tobacco	135	1,851	3	64,187
Hemp	74	560	—	2,858
Beef	89	12,215	—	9,077
Pork	3,454	7,203	—	47,205
Bacon	164	5,452	4	37,291
Butter	1,122	4,784	—	2,417
Cheese	37	12,801	—	1,811
Lard	150	5,407	—	22,766
Tallow	413	122	—	196
Potatoes	403	17,949	—	22,809
Wool	15	5,259	—	—
Leather	—	4,102	2	—
Eggs	—	1,838	—	—
Lard oil	6	1,204	—	2,117
Oil cake	—	3,405	—	—
Sugar	—	3,705	—	118,278
Molasses	1	—	—	91,500
Lead	—	8	—	9,592
Rail-road iron	—	—	—	—
Castings	77	1,224	—	—
Blooms	—	16,675	—	—
Nails & spikes	—	—	1	—
Pig iron	66	2,958	—	62
Coal	86	13,655	2,682	85,000
Whisky	649	13,938	51	29,270
Salt	134	6,408	—	—
Merchandise	923	4,580	97	—
Sundries	141,412	74,722	674	153,350
Total tons	329,621	1,977,151	13,696	1,292,670

This table exhibits the tonnage arriving at the Hudson, as much in preponderance of the other routes, although the Mississippi may exceed it in value.† It will also be seen that Philadelphia is indebted for her inland commerce, not so much to the region west as east of the mountains. She has in her coal and iron mines and ample agricultural resources, abundant food for an immense inland railway and canal commerce. The canals of Pennsylvania, west of the mountains, appear to feed the commerce of the Ohio at Pittsburgh; and those east that of the seaboard at Philadelphia.

It is to be regretted that so little regard is paid to arranging and collecting statistics of our inland commerce by the various states in which the great lines are situated. The State of New-York is the only one which compiles full reports of traffic, tonnage and valuation of the commerce of her public works. Such reports are not only interesting, but they are extremely valuable to business men. They are the means of acquainting the producer, the forwarder, the vender, the broker and the consumer, with the probable stocks, the rapidity with which those stocks are coming forward in

* The estimates for the Mississippi are greatly under the truth, since no account is made of the enormous coasting trade of New-Orleans.—Ed. Review.

† There is no propriety in including timber and lumber in an estimate like this. Omitting them, the tonnage of the Mississippi will preponderate.—Ed. Review.

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market, and the probable effect on freights, price and demand. This information, if published weekly with official correctness, would prove invaluable to the community. It would enable business men to operate intelligibly, by furnishing them data upon which to base their calculations. It would acquaint ourselves and foreigners, by comparisons of corresponding periods of several years, and of the totals at the close of each year, of the extent and progress of our internal trade. But this is a digression, suggested by the difficulty always encountered in this country in procuring reliable statistics of trade. England has her Board of Trade, whose monthly returns show her merchants and manufacturers, and producers, the transactions of the previous month with great exactness, and these returns are at once sent by steam or electricity to Liverpool, Manchester and Birmingham, whence they are distributed to all parts of the world. Every merchant in the foreign trade looks for them with interest. Why may not the United States have a "Bureau of Commerce" attached to the Treasury Department, to answer the same purpose with the English Board of Trade, returns from which may be published at the close of each month, quarter and year? Its organization would be easy, and under proper regulations and superintendence, would prove of incalculable value to the country, both at home and abroad. This fact and the preceding query are the result of the digression from which we now will return.

The Mississippi hitherto has stood alone and unrivaled as the southern route; and it will continue for a long time to come the only southern water route. But railways will soon be opened which will contribute much to the trade of other southern ports than New-Orleans, without, however, detracting much from those sections of country which furnish her trade. The traffic of railways is generally created in bringing the country which they pass within reach of a market, which previously made no demand upon it. While, therefore, Savannah, Charleston, and Mobile are to be vastly benefited by the trade their railways will bring them, it will not be by diverting traffic, other than passenger, from the river. Many lines of railway are about being opened, which will prove as auxiliaries to the great southern route, some of them terminating at New-Orleans, Mobile, Savannah and Charleston, and their tendency will be, to greatly increase the tonnage to and from the interior to the seaboard, beyond anything we have yet seen or predicted. And it will be done mainly by opening up resources, and reaching points, which have heretofore been unproductive on account of their inaccessibility.

On the other hand, we have seen that the northern route has three water outlets, delivering at tide water a "down" tonnage of 2,320,468 tons, against 1,292,670 tons by the Mississippi during the year 1851. It should be remembered too that the latter is open for navigation the whole year, while the northern route is closed upon the average about five months per annum. Besides this immense water tonnage, the New-York and Erie, New-York Central and the Northern lines of railway, have delivered at tide water an aggregate of no less than 228,107 tons, valued at $11,405,300.

According to the figures thus far presented, then, the seaboard is indebted to the interior for 1851—in 3,841,245 tons of property, worth.....$182,663,140
The interior is indebted to the seaboard for property valued at.....$151,990,717

Credit to interior..... 20,672,423

It is generally supposed, and the evidences of exchange seem to favor such supposition, that the interior is in debt to the seaboard. Such is no doubt the fact with regard to new countries which have all their improvements to make, their lands to clear up, cultivate and stock, before they become profitable, which is much the case with the inhabitants of the valley and basin. The light and costly goods, jewelry, silks, etc., sent west by express, are not included in the above estimates, and if the value of such freight could be accurately computed, it would no doubt more than square the account. There is, however little confidence to be placed upon the valuation of "merchandise." In the canal estimates upon the New-York canals, it is doubtless estimated at too low a rate per ton. At least, as before remarked, these estimates of the value of up tonnage, are but the merest approximations, under the present mode of classifying that species of freight.

From the foregoing it may be seen that, while the value of products of the

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interior seeking the seaboard is by the southern route as about ten to seven by the northern route, so the value of the return merchandise, &c., going by the northern route, is as about thirteen to one. Hence there should be a very great preponderance in the value of western over eastern freight, on the northern route. That such is the fact, the returns of exports and imports at the upper lake ports abundantly testify, the latter in many cases being from three to four hunper cent. greater than the former.

But if the inland commerce arriving at and departing from the seaboard, is so considerable, what must be the amount in value, and the gross value of exports and imports at the several inland ports? To how many people must its transport, transhipment, storing, handling and selling, give employment? How many tons of boats and shipping are employed? How much fuel is consumed in steam? How much capital is invested in purchasing, insuring, transporting and exchanging? These are questions fraught with deep interest, to all those at all interested in the progress of civilization, commerce, science and the arts. They might be intelligibly answered too, if a proper system for the collection and arrangement of statistics were established. As it is, however, we can only give a few of the most careful estimates, based upon the most authentic returns, obtainable from time to time, and arranged with great care. These estimates have always been represented as below the mark, from the fact that many ports make no returns at all.

The United States have over 3,000 miles of lake coast, and some 30,000 miles navigable river; to which should be added about 3,000 miles of canal, composing a total of not far from 36,000 miles of inland water navigation. The gross value of the commerce of the lakes alone, in 1848, exclusive of cost of tonnage, passage or express business, was $65,000,000; in 1849, $123,000,000; in 1850, $186,000,000; and in 1851 it was $325,000,000. The unparalleled increase during the last three years is owing to the opening of many new lines of railway at various points intersecting the lakes, and cheapening the prices of transportation from the interior to the lake shore. The enrolled tonnage of the lakes in 1841 was 56,252 tons; in 1846, 106,836 tons; and in 1851, it was 215,975 tons, being an increase in measurement of nearly four hundred per cent. in ten years, while the increase in capacity, owing to a substitution of steam for sail, as a motive power both for propulsion and handling freight, is much greater still. The gross tons entered at all the lake ports in 1851 are estimated at 9,469,506, and cleared 9,456,346. The steamboat tonnage of the western rivers in 1842 was 126,278 tons; in 1846, 249,035, and in 1851 it was reported, by Secretary Corwin, at 135,559 tons. If there is no error in either of these statements of tonnage, then the capacity of the tonnage must have been greatly enlarged lately, by quickening the speed and making a greater number of trips. It is most probable, however, that many old, worn-out crafts were computed in 1846, while in 1851 only the working enrollments were taken into account. The rivers employ 558 steamers and the lakes 157. The original cost of the whole sail and steam tonnage on the lakes and rivers in 1851, was about $21,838,000. The total net money value of all the property transported on the lakes in 1841, was estimated at $33,000,000; in 1849 at $63,000,000; in 1850 at $93,000,000; and in 1851, $151,000,000. That of property transported on the rivers of the valley in 1842, was estimated at about $130,000,000; in 1846 at about $184,000,000, and in 1851, at about $275,000,000. This gives an aggregate money value for 1851, of interior lake and river commerce, of about $438,200,000, an amount far exceeding our foreign commerce, exclusive of specie. But if we add to this the enormous coasting trade of the United States, including California, the amount would more than double our foreign commerce.

This, it will still be observed, is independent of the railway and canal commerce. The total movement of the New-York canals alone in 1851, about 860 miles in length, was 3,582,733 tons: valued at $159,981,801, and paying tolls to the state of $3,329,727. It is estimated that in this navigation 4,047 boats were employed, with an aggregate of 283,290 tons. The amount paid for transportation on these canals, in addition to the above amount of toll to the state, is estimated to have been about $2,500,000. This latter is the amount paid to the forwarder to indemnify him for carriage, wear of boat, horses, men,

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etc. These canals have cost the state upwards of $29,000,000, besides the annual charges for repairs and maintenance. The state has received in tolls from the canals since 1824, $59,413,870.

The railways of the United States in operation comprise about 15,000 miles, at an average cost of, say $25,000 per mile; making an aggregate expenditure of some $375,000,000. Nearly all of this railway that has affected the lake and river trade of 1851, has been opened since the commercial returns of 1848, or at least a large portion of it, and it has been seen that the results are beyond all anticipations. But the business of 1851 was benefited by less than 10,000 miles of railway, whereas, in 1855, we shall have in operation over 20,000 miles, penetrating the agricultural and mineral hearts of almost all the western states. What must result from the opening of so many feeders to the great through water routes?

It has been observed that the amount of inland commerce reaching the seaboard is but a little of the "total movement." It is only the surplus that seeks a foreign market, while the great bulk, the unmeasured, the unfathomed mass, is consumed, changed and interchanged among the several states. A little of it adheres to the hands of every person who touches it, as it were; it pays to every exchanger, transporter and laborer its stipend, as its passes about to its places of consumption. It is, most unquestionably, a good thing to have a foreign commerce through which to dispose of our surplus products, but we should not, for this, sacrifice the internal commerce, so much more valuable to the whole country, and without which our foreign commerce could not survive a single day.

In concluding this subject, the question naturally suggests itself: if such has been the progress of our commerce during the past thirty years, what is to be its future? If such results have followed the partial opening of the resources of the new states by water routes, what is to follow the perfect exhumation of the interior of all the states by means of the iron tracks which are to act as feeders to the great northern and southern water routes? The year 1860 will draw upon an internal traffic in the United States valued at no less than $1,800,000,000, including lake, canal, river and railway. And there will be but little rivalry between the different routes. They will work harmoniously together, mutually assisting each other, and all will be fully occupied. The immense heavy products of the southwest will continue to float down the Mississippi, to the Gulf of Mexico, in great profusion and increase. Much has been written and said of turning the tide of the Mississippi trade north. Above certain lines, where the distance is greatly in favor of the northern route, some of the present trade, and perhaps all the increase, will take the northern route during the season of navigation. But the increase of trade south of those lines, which will be induced by the opening of projected improvements, will far exceed the amount diverted. The strife now exhibited in procuring means for diverting trade from existing routes will disappear in the inability to carry off the augmentation. Suppose the Mississippi and the northern water routes now to have a "total movement" of 10,000,000 tons, which is probably not very wide of the mark, how many railways like the Erie, Northern and Baltimore, and Ohio, will it take to carry the present tonnage? And how long will it take to construct them? It would require ten railways, each with double tracks, stretching from Boston, New-York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore to New-Orleans, via the Mississippi valley and the lake basin, making at least 40,000 miles of track, which would cost at least $60,000,000, and take ten years to build. In the mean time, our commerce would have doubled twice, crowding both water and land routes to their full capacity. So this will not do. Our canals in New-York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana and Illinois, must be enlarged, within the next ten years, to a capacity which will admit boats to pass drawing six feet of water, with steam for a propelling power, and stowage for 2,000 bbls. of flour. Freight must be handled by steam, and transit expedited in all possible ways by water. Railways will feed water routes with freight from the interior, the through lines carrying express freight of a light and costly character, and passengers. At least such are our conclusions from the foregoing premises. The great united northern and southern routes must always continue the great highways for the products of the interior, upon which

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they will be exchanged among the States, and the surplus finds its way to the seaboard. By them the northeast and southwest will be forever united, while the numerous iron ways intersecting them at various points, will weld together all the various interests of the several states in such a bond of union as will prove forever inseparable.

ART. III.—HISTORICAL AND STATISTICAL COLLECTIONS OF LOUISIANA.

THE PARISH OF TENSAS.

[As Superintendent of the Bureau of Statistics of the State of Louisiana, we published a great number of papers, including material relating to the majority of the parishes. We have deferred a general report upon them all, in the hope of obtaining additional material, and in expectation of the completion of the national census, so as to embody its statistical results. As this report will be published, if possible, before the close of the summer, we continue to solicit information, and beg our friends to send to the office of the Review anything of interest that may relate to the history and statistics of their parishes and towns of the state. As a guide to the nature of the information desired, we refer to the papers already published by us, and to the annexed circular, which has been so often published before :]

I. Time of *settlement* of your parish or town ; dates of oldest land grants ; number and condition of first settlers ; whence emigrating ; other facts relating to settlement and history.

II. *Indian names* in your vicinity ; what tribes originally ; what relics or monuments of them ; if Indians still, in what condition ?

III. *Biography*, anecdotes, &c., of individuals distinguished in your vicinity in the past for ingenuity, enterprise, literature, talents, civil or military, &c.

IV. *Topographical description* of your parish, mountains, rivers, ponds, animals, quadrupeds, birds, fishes, reptiles, insects, &c., vegetable growths, rocks, minerals, sand clays, chalk, flint, marble, pit coal, pigments, medicinal and poisonous substances, elevation above the sea, nature of surface, forests, or undergrowth, what wells and quality of well water, nature of coasts, does the water make inroads, mineral springs, caves, &c.

V. *Agricultural description* of parish; former and present state of cultivation ; changes taking place ; introduction of cotton, sugar, rice, indigo, tobacco, grains, fruits, vines, &c., &c. ; present products ; lands occupied and unoccupied, and character of soils ; value of lands ; state of improvements ; value of agricultural products ; horses, cattle, mules. hogs, and whence supplied ; profits of agriculture, prices of products ; new estates opening ; improvements suggested in cultivation, and new growths ; improvements in communication, roads, bridges, canals, &c. ; kind and quantity of timber, fuel, &c. ; state of the roads, summer and winter ; kinds of inclosures, and of what timber ; manures ; natural and artificial pastures ; agricultural implements used ; fruit trees, vines, and orchards ; modes of transportation ; extent of internal navigation ; levees, &c. ; modes of cultivating and manufacturing sugar in use.

VI. Instances of *longevity* and *fecundity ;* observations on diseases in your section ; localities, healthful or otherwise ; statistics of diseases, deaths, summer seats, &c.

VII. *Population* of your parish ; increase and progress, distinguishing white and black ; Spanish, French, American, or German origin ; foreigners, classes of population ; number in towns ; growth of towns and villages, &c. ; condition, employment, ages ; comparative value of free and slave labor ; comparative tables of increase ; marriages, births, &c. ; meteorological tables of temperature, weather, rains, &c.

VIII. *Education and Religion.*—Advantages of schools, colleges, libraries enjoyed ; proportion educated at home and abroad ; expense of education ; school returns, churches or chapels in parish, when and by whom erected, how supplied with clergy ; how supported and attended ; oldest interments ; church vaults, &c.

IX. *Products in Manufactures and the Arts.*—Kinds of manufactures in parish ; persons employed ; kind of power ; capital ; wages ; per centum profit ; raw material ; sugar and cotton ; machinery and improvements ; kind and value ; manufacturing sites, &c.

X. *Commercial Statistics.*—Value of the imports and exports of Louisiana with each of the other states of the Union, as far as any approximation may be made or data given ; growth and condition of towns ; increase in towns, &c.

XI. *General Statistics.*—Embracing banking, rail-roads, insurances, navigation, intercommunication ; learned and scientific societies ; crime, pauperism, charities, public and benevolent institutions ; militia, newspapers, &c. ; application of parish taxes ; expenses of roads, levees, &c. ; number of suits decided in different courts ; expenses and perfection of justice ; number of parish officers, lawyers, physicians, &c.

XII. Date, extent, consequences, and other circumstances of droughts, freshets, whirlwinds, storms, lightnings, hurricanes, or other remarkable physical events in your section from remote periods ; other meteorological phenomena ; changes in climate, &c., &c.

XIII. Literary productions emanating from your neighborhood ; your associations, if any ; what manuscripts, public or private records, letters, journals, &c., or rare old books, interesting in their relation to the history of Louisiana, are possessed by individuals within your knowledge. State any other matters of interest.

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Tensas parish is the youngest daughter of "Old Concordia," being the last parish stricken off that extensive domain, which formerly reached from the mouth of Red River to the Arkansas line. It was divided in 1843. It has a river border of between fifty and sixty miles. It is bounded north by Madison parish, west by Franklin parish and Catahoula, east by the Mississippi River, south by the Mississippi River and Concordia parish. It embraces a territory of six hundred and twenty-five square miles, or about four hundred and six thousand acres.

SETTLEMENT.—As with other places on the great river, nothing very accurate can be obtained in reference to the first settlements. As might be supposed, in very early times individuals passing down the river were attracted by favorable locations which presented themselves, and made temporary settlements, and these, no doubt, were in some instances cotemporaneous with the settlements made on the other side of the Mississippi. These temporary settlements being abandoned were occupied by persons of more energy, whose occupation was the cultivation of the soil. It was at a house known as the "Stone Chimney," nearly opposite the site on which Grand Gulf has since been built, that Aaron Burr took up his residence for a short time in 1807, where he was maturing his plans for ambition or personal aggrandizement in the South. The nearest post-office was Port Gibson, in Mississippi, and the messenger who was employed to convey his correspondence and receive his letters, identified him as the man. His stay was short, but memorable. No doubt the first permanent settler was Job Routh, the father of John Routh, Esq., who made his settlement in 1800, or perhaps before that time. The following are some of the early settlers, and the date of their settlement:—

Job Routh, Lake St. Joseph, 1800; John Routh, Esq., Lake St. Joseph, 1808; James Miller, Mississippi River, 1808; Ebenezer Miller, Mississippi River, 1808; James Bray, 1800; Jacob Bieller, 1808; Burrel Vick, do., 1808; Mrs. Sarah Hays, in 1804, who is still a resident of the parish at the advanced age of 80 years; Job Bass, 1805; Arthur Andrews was representative of the parish from 1815 to 1825, and resident of this part of it, at what is now called the Mardis Place, owned, I believe, now by Dr. Duncan. Scales' and Nichol's Plantation was settled in 1806 or 1808. It was at a period later than the above-mentioned dates that the country back from the Mississippi and Lake St. Joseph was settled, though there were not lacking pioneers who penetrated the swamp to test its value. In 1813, two men, tanners, came from Greenville, Mi., for the purpose of killing alligators and cat-fish for oil, which they needed to carry on their business, at a time when commerce was suspended, and when the southern country was threatened with war. They bivouacked at what is now called Lake Shackleford, which derived its name from one of these adventurers. They were so much pleased that they made preparation to reside there, and cultivate the ground, but the high water of 1815 discouraged them, and drove them back again to the hills. The river settlements, as we have said, were early made and constantly increasing in value. The deep forests in the rear were considered by many only as reservoirs which were necessary to hold the floods of the Mississippi, and not intended for cultivation. Up to the year 1836 there were not known but very few settlers on the Tensas River, from its mouth to its source. During the administration of Judge George S. Guion, who was parish judge from 1828 to 1836, there were but two or three settlements back from the Mississippi; two of these were on Walnut Bayou, and one or two on the Tensas River, and were ferrymen on the route of travel to Alexandria, La., and Texas.

It was between the years of 1836 and 1845 that the principal emigration set in to this parish, invited by the defences made on the Mississippi for protection, and the exemption of the country from overflow for so many years. It was in 1843 that the great land sales took place at Munroe, for back concessions on the Mississippi, and for the lands in the interior of the parish. The lands had been previously settled, and needed only the proof of pre-emption to give the happy settler a title to his home. The contrast which a few years presented in the settlement and growth of the Parish was great. Formerly the roads leading up and down the river were the only ones, with no back settlements. Then and now there are roads traversing the parish in every direction, and leading to

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neighborhoods which abound with life and industry. It was in the year 1828 that the road from the Mississippi to Sicily Island was established by the police, usually called the Rodney Road. Before that time it was merely a by-path, and afterward, until there were settlements on the route, that had its care, unless in the fall or summer, it was not a very pleasant road to travel, though the shortest through the swamp.

Mounds.—There are numerous mounds in this parish; so numerous that I think it has a pre-eminence in this respect, and was a favorite resort of the tribe of Indians who formerly inhabited this country, and whom Robert Patterson, formerly editor of the *Concordia Intelligencer*, styled the Mound Builders, a name very applicable. All attempts to fathom their history is, of course, of no avail. There they stand—the monuments of an age or ages gone by, leaving no record of the past save their beautiful appearance, in contrast with the dead level of the surrounding country, and the bones which are frequently disinterred by the spade or plow. They are always on streams or lakes, and stand in clusters, one larger than the rest. They are usually cultivated with the balance of the plantation, or used, when convenient, for orchards. Their height is from twelve to twenty feet above the ordinary level. I know of one used as a convivial spot on a fourth of July occasion. When the party had assembled, there was a piece of paper found nailed to a tree, with these words—"Three feet beneath this ground lie human bones. Will the inhabitants of a Christian country dance over the graves of the aborigines of our country!" It had no effect on their mirth; with a few remarks on the person who wrote it, the dance went on.

Biography.—Perhaps it may not be amiss to mention, under this head, one who has certainly contributed very much to the prosperity of the portion of the parish where he resided, who gave an impulse to business, encouragement to the new settlers, and was the *founder* of Waterproof, now a thriving village on the Mississippi, 21 miles from Natchez, numbering 200 in population—James Miller, (deceased.) He came to this country, with his brothers Ebenezer and Robert Miller, in 1808, when the banks of the Mississippi were lined with cane; brooked the difficulties which presented themselves to a poor man in a new country, and gained competence and even wealth. The town of Waterproof was laid out in 1846, and sold the next year. Mr. Miller shaped his course to suit the exigencies of the times and the pressing demands of the people.

John Routh, Esq., has been for several years at the head of the Police Court in this parish; was the chief man in urging taxation to build levees, so important to rescue the parish from the disastrous effects of the overflow, which, by his influence and energy, he carried out. He is now a member of the legislature from this parish, where he was greatly instrumental in carrying out a system of taxation for levee purposes, in the two upper parishes and Catahoula, which were most concerned, and thereby making the cause a general one, as these parishes are dependent on each other for protection. Mr. Routh pays taxes on more than 30,000 acres of land in this parish, and makes near or quite 4,000 bales of cotton annually.

Dr. Thos. Newell is known as having been the means of bringing to the use of the cotton region an excellent press, now called the "Newell Press," and of some machinery connected with a mill, used on Lake St. Joseph. He was formerly a practitioner of medicine, but having for several years relinquished the practice, except as a neighborly act, he has devoted himself to planting, in which he exhibits neatness and a due attention to the cultivation of the soil.

Rivers and Lakes.—Lake St. Joseph lies in the northern part of the parish, is twenty-five miles long, and was named by Mr. Job Routh in honor of Joseph Vidal, commandant of the Concordia district, from whom he received a requetté of land.

Lake Bruin lies a few miles back of the town of St. Joseph, and was named after Judge Bruin of Mississippi, who possibly owned land on its banks. It was formerly called Lake Peter, after Peter Walker, the father of our present governor, who was himself a land surveyor in this parish. Chactá Lake, Lake Easely, Tensas Lake, a part of the Tensas River, the river running through it, Saddletree Lake, and Bullus Lake.

Rivers.—Tensas River is near 300 miles long. It runs through the northern and western part of the parish. It rises

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in Lake Providence, and runs in a devious way, like the Mississippi, which it resembles. At one point it is not more than seven or eight miles from that river. It drains the parish—every bayou in the parish communicating with it, and with others which lead to it. It receives its waters from the Mississippi at one point at New Carthage. Its banks are rough and irregular, like the Mississippi. It is navigable to Roundaway Bayou, Madison parish, whence steamboats ply regularly during business season. The difference between high water and low water is about thirty feet. The first steamboat which ascended the river was in '40 or '42. Most of the boats which ascend it act the part of pioneers. The accumulation of drift is such as needs a yearly removal. The greater part of the country which flanks the Tensas is newly settled, or at least within the last ten years. This accounts for the number of trees still standing between the banks, not in the channel, which, if removed, would produce a depression in high water of some considerable extent.

Bayous.—Bayou Mason lies on the western part of the parish, and runs into the Tensas. It separates the parish from Franklin, and is navigable for steamboats to near the Arkansas line. There are also Derosset Bayou, Shackleford Bayou, Mill Bayou, Mound Bayou, Saddletree Bayou, Big Chacta, Little Chacta, Clark's Bayou, Van Buren Bayou, Little Tensas, Water Hole Bayou, Roaring Bayou, Cross Bayou, Dickard Bayou, Green's Bayou, Black Bayou, and Hunter's Bayou.

Besides these there are innumerable small bayous everywhere which drain the land. They do not serve the use of ditches, for the land lying level every where, to make the yield commensurate with the fertility of the soil, ditches are positively necessary. The appearance of the land is everywhere the same, but the color of the soil is different in different localities, owing to the time which it has been in cultivation. The soil has a hard surface, and from the constant necessity imposed on it, in the course of time it loses its rich loamy appearance, and assumes a brownish color. Though there is very little of this worn-out land, where so much rich virgin land can be attained, yet on the front in some places it has very much the appearance of age and poverty. The land lies rolling, that is, a ridge and a slough, the ridges about three feet higher than the slough. I have heard of no minerals of any sort in this parish. For water, cisterns are preferred. Wells are used where these cannot be attained. The water is healthy, slightly therapeutical. Upon analysis a small quantity of iron has been found in it, and some magnesia. The land recedes as you go back from the Mississippi at about three inches in a mile. I gather this from an estimate taken by engineers who surveyed the route from Providence to Munroe. It is seventy-five or seventy-six feet at Waterproof above the level of the sea. I may as well mention another fact in this connection—that the river opposite the parish, near Hard Times, is deeper than it is any where else on the river. It is 200 feet deep. The growth of the forest is the same every where on the low-lands on the Mississippi. Gum, oak of every variety, cotton wood, hackberry, pecan, which grows large and yields abundant fruit, locust, dogwood, cypress, mulberry, willow, elm, haw, swamp piney, persimmon, and occasionally is found a small pine. I have found some while hunting in the woods for trees to adorn a yard. A good deal of attention is paid in this parish to stock, though the overflow of 1850 was very injurious in this particular, $68,000 worth of various kinds having perished in that eventful year. Mules are generally used for farming purposes; oxen for hauling. The range renders them almost without expense, except when on the road. Many planters raise their own meat. The range is good for cattle, and mast for hogs.

There are numbers of wild animals in the parish. In many places there are large tracts uninhabited, where the thick cane-brakes and dense undergrowth afford layers for the wild beast, and refuge when pursued—deer, bear, panther, wild-cat, catamount, wolf, raccoon, opossum. A great many deer and bear have been and are still killed. The bear fights with spirit, and but few bear hunts terminate without injury to some one or more valuable dogs. They are great depredators. I understand that Mr. James Gordon, on Lake St. Joseph, generally plants twenty-five acres of corn yearly for the bear. Whether you plant it or not, but few escape their nightly visitations, and they soon lay waste, if not checked, the fairest prospects. They are very destructive to

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hogs, always selecting the fattest of the drove. They are frequently killed while going into the cornfield, by persons who take stands for them at their usual place of getting over, or when they return from the field. An overseer on Lake St. Joseph informed me that he shot one just after he had reached the ground in getting into the field; and in his efforts to get out of the field, he made a complete gap in the rail fence, and scattered the things about as if they were but play-things.

The productions of this parish are the same as in all the southern country, corn and cotton. The corn crop in last year (1851) was far below the usual average, on account of an unprecedented drought, and an insect which infested the roots, while very young, called the chinck bug. It has puzzled many how to circumvent the little creatures, and to make corn notwithstanding. This year the insects were not so bad, and pleasant rains produced an abundant harvest, sometimes to the extent of fifty bushels to the acre. There were in 1851, 16,381 acres cultivated in corn. The culture of cotton is persevered in, and attended with great success. There were raised, in 1851, 46,223 bales of cotton, and there were 45,823 acres planted in cotton. The largest crop known to have been made was raised on Mrs. Ogden's place in 1839, which was nineteen bales to the hand. The overseer was grieved that he could not make twenty. It is useless to detail the manner in which corn and cotton are cultivated, but merely to say, that the most approved instruments are used in the cultivation, and cultivated in a way which experience has sanctioned to be the best, and carried on with a spirit and energy which neither slackens nor slumbers. There is but one new place opened this year, that of Mr. Daniel's, on Van Buren Bayou. Lands are estimated at from 10 to 30 dollars per acre.

Planters living back are, of necessity, compelled to keep their roads in good condition. There has been of late years great improvements in this respect. Some haul the cotton to the Mississippi, others wait a rise in the back streams to take it out this way. If the numerous bayous which intersect the parish were properly cleansed, no country could exceed it in internal navigation. Nature has placed them as drains, and man's labor could make them highly auxiliary to the end for which his labor has been appropriated.

The improvements consist generally of very neat residences, and gin-houses and out-buildings of a very substantial character. There is an air of neatness and comfort in the dwellings which is very attractive. Hospitality is proverbial—though the untiring ambition to make money prevents much sociable intercourse.

The principal shipping points in the parish are Ashwood, Hard Times, St. Joseph, and Waterproof. St. Joseph is the parish site, and has a court-house and jail, a tavern and two stores. It contains the residence of the marshal of the southern district of Louisiana, as well as several very able members of the bar. The population cannot contain more than fifty. St. Joseph, on a court day, or on some court days, presents a scene of animating interest—lawyers of high standing from a distance, the important interests at stake, citizens crowding into the little town, and all partaking of the bounties of life at the same table, as if they were all of one family, and needed only the name of brotherhood to make them so.

Religion and Education.—Religious services are performed every Sabbath in various parts of the parish by the Methodists and Presbyterians. There are one hundred and twenty white members of the Methodist Church, and one hundred and three colored. What the number of the Presbyterians is I have not been informed. I do not believe that there is as yet any organized society. There are four Methodist preachers residing in the parish, and one Presbyterian. There are three Methodist churches—the one at Waterproof is a beautiful edifice, and will cost $4,000. There are schools in nearly every neighborhood, supported partially by the school-fund. The salaries of teachers are from five hundred to a thousand dollars. There are 232 persons between the ages of six and sixteen; also lawyers, and doctors, and planters, of great intelligence, but I know of no one whose profession is purely literary.

With a brief statement of the progress of population from the settlement of this country to this time, and a brief history of the parish judges who have conducted the business of the people through the trying emergencies which characterized its settlement, I will conclude.

In 1810, the parish of Concordia, which embraced all the country lying from the

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mouth of Red River to the Arkansas line, contained 2,895 souls. In 1815, the whole state did not exceed 90,000 souls—but few Americans arrived before the purchase of Louisiana. After 1815 was the greatest influx of population. Concordia is now divided into four parishes, and constitutes a very important fragment of the cotton region. Tensas parish contains 902 free persons, and 8,673 negroes. There was paid in three years quite a large sum for levee purposes.

The first parish judge who acted under the territorial government, was a gentleman by the name of Ross. He was succeeded by Dr. David Lattimore, who still lives in Concordia at the extreme old age of about ninety years. He was followed by Edward Broughton, Esq., who, not being a lawyer, and leaving the administration of affairs to his clerk, caused great confusion and irregularity in the office. There were many amusing stories related of the judge; among others, there was one—which, of course, must have been apocryphal, as intending to disparage the office, being considered by some as having all the honors and emoluments concentrated in it—to this effect, that having settled a small estate of five hundred dollars belonging to a Kentuckian, who had died in Concordia, he wrote to the friends of the deceased in Kentucky to remit one hundred dollars, to pay the balance due him for fees. He was followed by John Perkins, Esq., the venerable and respected citizen and model planter, now and for many years residing at Somerset, in the parish of Madison. Judge P. has a son, John Perkins, Jr., who wears the judicial ermine with distinguished honor, and who has presided in this district. The next was Robert Ogden, Esq., who administered the office little more than two years, from 1826 to 1828. He was a very worthy man, and possessed of considerable learning, but being advanced in years, and of feeble constitution, he was not able to undergo the fatigue, and surmount the difficulties attendant upon the discharge of the duties of parish judge of the extensive district of Concordia. In order to make inventories and sales of succession property in remote parts of the parish, it was frequently necessary to undertake journeys of more than a hundred miles, subject to many inconveniences and annoyances. There were no regular packet-boats in those days, passing and repassing; and if the parish judge sometimes took an occasional steamboat, ten chances to one he would have to float back on a flat-boat. But the dignity of the office was not compromised, for their duties were important, and their discomforts were in keeping with the state of the country. Judge Ogden was the father of three distinguished lawyers of that name, now residents of this state—two of whom live in New-Orleans, and one in the parish of Rapides.

He was followed by Judge George S. Guion, who administered the office from 1828 to 1836, and was highly esteemed and respected for the mildness of his manners, and his clear characteristics as judge. Parts of the country, however, were in a state of rudeness, morally as well as physically, and some of the newly settled neighborhoods were wild and lawless, and not disposed to look upon the parish judge with favor or treat him with much courtesy. Indeed, the office was in such bad odor among some of the frontier people, owing either to personal prejudice against those who had preceded him, or some more substantial cause, that for the purpose of protecting himself from personal violence whilst among them, he was compelled to wear a brace of pistols openly belted around him. This state of things did not last long, and before he resigned, a complete change was manifest. Judge Guion is now a resident of the parish of Lafourche Interior, a planter, and holds a distinguished place in the affections of his fellow-citizens. He was elected a member of the convention in 1845, assisted in framing that constitution, and was elected to the same office in 1852 as member of the convention, when it became expedient to change the economy which prevailed in 1845, and to engraft some new features which were agreeable to the age in which we live. The next was Judge Keeton, who was killed by the falling of a house during the great tornado of 1840. Judge Dunlap succeeded him, and he was followed by George C. McWhorter, at present State Treasurer.

In Tensas Parish, Judge Montgomery was judge after the organization, who, having served a year or two, was followed by Judge Bradstreet, who held the reins till the office was abolished in 1845.

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ART. IV.—DIREOT TRADE OF THE SOUTH.

[In addition to the very able and valuable papers we have from time to time published in the Review upon the subject of the *Direct Trade of the South*, we recommend to the attention of our readers the following, which, though strained and speculative in many respects, embodies some sound and wholesome truths. There is a propriety in referring to such papers on the eve of another Convention at Memphis for the promotion of southern trade, and our only regret is that we cannot be present and take part in its deliberations, as we have made it a point hitherto to do.]

The Committee of Ways and Means, to whom was referred the bill incorporating the Alabama Direct Trade and Exchange Company, have duly considered the same, and believing that there is no one subject in which all our citizens have a deeper or more lasting interest than a speedy and radical change in our import trade, beg leave to make the following report:

The skilful and prudent merchant, in selecting a site for extensive, profitable and durable commerce, will examine carefully the whole surrounding country, consider well its climates, soils and seasons; its valleys, hills and mountains; its vegetable, animal and mineral productions; its lakes, rivers and roads; its bays, seas, gulfs and oceans, with their peculiar currents, tides and winds; look well to the natural disposition, capacity, occupation, wealth, habits and customs, opinions, political, religious and moral, of the whole surrounding population. His interest is identical with the greatest prosperity and tranquillity of all his customers. He is, therefore, the natural ally of the best and most stable government.

Civilization, the arts and sciences, first appeared in the East. Their course has been westward; as the world is but a great national race-ground, in process of time they will again reach their starting point.

The Israelites, Grecians, Romans and Spaniards have exerted a powerful influence on the destinies of mankind. They were all extensive slaveholding countries in their days of progress and power. Nations, like individuals, have their birth, infancy, manhood and old age; like them, they have their peculiarities, their inferior or superior mental, moral and physical power and physical organization; like them, they have their fevers, consumptions, epidemics, and chronic infections, and the good of mankind requires, under certain circumstances, that they should be confined, restrained, punished, and, at times, even *destroyed*. They, too, like individuals, in obtaining or making locations on the earth's surface, have advantages or disadvantages more or less suited to their peculiar mental, moral or physical organization, propensities, habits and occupations. The country we now occupy, before it was discovered by the European race, was admirably suited in all respects to the wild, savage, roving, destructive propensities of the Indian. By nature free and idle, he could neither be civilized nor enslaved, without destroying his existence or happiness. In selecting a place of residence, all he desired was a wilderness to rove in, and game to gratify his destructive propensities and furnish him food and raiment.

The African, when left to himself, can only exist and be happy under a tropical sun, where summer is continual, clothing not a necessity, and food can be obtained by little effort from the spontaneous productions of the country. Freedom to him, in a cold climate, is a curse, compared to slavery under an intelligent master, in a mild one. In their native country they are a nation of human beings at rest, and likely to continue so, until highly stimulated by some race different in physical organization. If, by pestilence, the whole race in their own country were suddenly cut off, Europe and America would only feel it in an advance on ivory and a few spices. The energetic white European or American requires for the full development of his capacity and disposition, a country possessing all the natural elements of the three great pursuits of civilized man, agriculture, commerce, and manufactures. That country combining all these in the most extensive and compact form, in the most convenient location, is, above all others, the best calculated to promote his own happiness, and enable him to be useful to surrounding nations.

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The white European, in the course of his progress and enterprise, discovered the American continent, on parts of which the attempt has been made by legislation to bring the Indian and African up to a political equality with the white man. Political equality necessarily brings about social equality; social equality produces amalgamation. This political and social equality, with the consequent amalgamation, has brought on premature consumption and rapid decay in the whole political and social mass, which threatens to bring about premature dissolution and lasting imbecility.

In our portion of the continent we have, so far, followed a different course. We expelled from amongst us the Indian, and kept the African entirely under our control and direction. We, although in infancy as to the ordinary age of a government, are already a giant in physical power, with strides so long and rapid as to strike with wonder and admiration all surrounding nations.

There exists in our system of African slavery a powerful tendency to elevate, and keep free and independent, the white race. Every citizen within these states sees slavery by color, by name, and nature, and from the time he can reflect, sets himself above a slave. So long as lands are low and labor profitable, there is no necessity for the poor white man to become dependent or a slave. The poor white man and the slave owner are alike interested in cheap lands and high wages; their interests are, therefore, identical. There is a powerful tendency in all republican states like our free states, to run into the European system of high taxes to favor particular classes. As population becomes dense, capital puts down the wages of labor, and can enslave the laborer.

Great Britain is the first commercial nation of the age, unless we may except our own country. Her commercial power, for many years, enabled her to be mistress of the seas. She is now the first manufacturing country of the world. On commerce and manufactures, all her present political power and greatness depend. Any power capable of striking a death-blow at her commerce and manufactures, must necessarily be her superior in any military contest waged with equal campaign material and government skill, to hers. She has a home population of twenty-seven millions on a territory about the size of Georgia and Florida, with advantages in position, soil, climate, mineral and vegetable productions, of not more than one half of theirs. Her colonial dominions are scattered over every quarter of the globe in all latitudes. Within them she has large possessions, devoted to the culture of cotton, rice, sugar and indigo. Every effort within her skill and power has been exerted to excel our country in the production of cotton. Notwithstanding her cotton region contains a population of more than one hundred millions of free laborers, which she calls her subjects, who are employed at mere nominal wages, so far, all her efforts have proved abortive, and must, regardless of soil or climate, unless she establishes our system of African slave labor. The consequence is, that she is dependent on our slaveholding states for a supply of cotton, on which, to a great extent, depends her commercial and manufacturing prosperity. In order to obtain commercial preference in the markets of Europe and America, in favor of her colonial commodities, she calls them free-labor productions, and, by this device, has succeeded in humbugging a numerous class of short-sighted customers in both countries. She has a company called the "East India Company," who rule and govern her extensive East India possessions. From the force of circumstances, her Canadian colonies are governed with more liberality and justice than any other portion of her extensive dominions. She fears their revolt and our assistance. Her public debt is eight hundred millions pounds sterling, a very considerable portion of which was created to abolish African slavery in her West India Islands, and has resulted in the ruin of the whites and blacks on those islands, and a destruction of their commercial prosperity. To pay the interest on this enormous public debt, as the taxes are levied most heavily on the laboring classes and all goes to the higher classes, a large majority of her population are in a much worse state of slavery than the African race are in the slaveholding states of our Union. To pay this tax, and obtain a scanty supply of food and raiment, requires constant labor. If affliction, by disease or old

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age, disqualifies any from capacity to labor, they are thrown out of doors, paupers, upon public charity. Of this class there are now, in Great Britain, over three millions; and in Europe not less than twenty millions; a living fungus upon European governments. The accumulated miseries flowing from their system of government, keep the population in a feverish revolutionary spirit. To preserve law and order, and collect the heavy taxes, requires in England a standing army of one hundred thousand men, stationed all over her territory; yet outbreaks and insurrections are common occurrences. Notwithstanding all this, it is said Great Britain has the freest and best government in Europe. We know heavy taxes, and standing armies to collect them and enforce obedience to unequal laws, abject slavery of the masses under the delusive name of free laborers, and an uncertainty in the future to every one, are general over Europe. The wealthy have no security from poverty by revolution, and the poor no security from the cannon, the sword, halter or dungeon, for revolt.

Great Britain, by unequal and inexpedient laws, forced upon her North American colonies the alternative of abject submission to unauthorized aggressions, or manly resistance in defence of their most sacred rights. After ten years' unregarded remonstrances, hope was lost, and the sword drawn; the contest appeared an unequal one, but seven years' war ended in the complete independence of our original thirteen colonies. It was a great loss of political power and sectional aggrandizement to the mother country. To the people of the United States, and many others, it has been a far greater gain. They abolished the British system of government, which holds the citizens to be subjects and subordinate to the King and other departments of the government, and made the citizens of the respective states sovereign, and the governor President, and legislative bodies all subordinate to the will of the people, properly expressed through their conventions.

The love of power and aggrandizement has been in all ages, amongst individuals and nations, prominent and constant. They are powerful elements in human progress, and it is only when unjust means are used for their attainment, that they should be opposed, checked or stopped. Great Britain made a second attempt to subjugate or check our power, in her last war with us. Failing in both instances, she now seeks to weaken us by attacking and urging others to attack, our system of African slavery.

There are four prominent, grand divisions within our present extensive boundaries: our commercial and manufacturing states, with their principal outlets through Massachusetts, New-York, and Pennsylvania; the agricultural states, with their principal outlets through Maryland, Virginia, North and South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Louisiana, and Texas, on the Atlantic and Gulf coast; California, with the Bay of San Francisco, and Oregon, with the Columbia River, as their principal outlets on the Pacific.

Whatever may be said of California gold, Oregon's farming capacity, or commercial and manufacturing prosperity of the New-England or Northern States, a close examination into the Southern Atlantic, Gulf, and Mississippi Valley States, must convince every one that there lie, congregated together, in the most compact form, all the elements, in the highest degree, of agricultural, commercial, and manufacturing superiority. The general progress and power of the Union requires that the resources of this section be wisely and skilfully directed.

Commerce is the heart of circulation in making exchanges of agricultural and manufacturing productions to the whole population. Any policy of the government or habits of the community that has a tendency to turn commerce out of its natural channels, within the same government, is a drawback on the healthy and vigorous action of the whole system.

Our navigable rivers and lakes have their bluffs, which are natural landings. To those bluffs roads can be made, with more or less labor, of higher or lower grades. When made, they are more convenient and less expensive for a certain surrounding population, as highways and landings, through which to send off or dispose of their surplus productions, than any other road or landing. The same landing and road is also the most convenient and least expensive, naturally, through which to obtain their purchases of other articles.

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Our sea or gulf coasts have their natural landings, all of which possess their relative advantages on account of climate, position, accessibility from the land side by navigable rivers or lakes, and the cheapness and low grade with which rail-roads or canals may be constructed, leading from them into the interior, and the capacity of the population for production. These landings also have their relative advantages in bays, harbors, ocean currents and winds, leading off in the most convenient direction for commercial purposes. They are the great landings of foreign and coastwise commerce—the landings for our exports and imports, with the same convenience and pecuniary advantage to the whole community, in having all their foreign supplies directly landed at them, for all those whose convenience or interest requires their exports to be landed there, as the small landings on the rivers or lakes. A system of commerce, to be most convenient and least expensive to the whole community, must necessarily have all its import agents or merchants at their export landings or cities. Any other system is unnatural, inexpedient and ruinous to every interest in the whole community, and a continual drawback on the aggregate prosperity and wealth of the country at large. The first inquiry for every class of every section in every state is, what seaport landing or city on the gulf or coast can be reached at the least expense on products—first, by natural highways, as navigable rivers, lakes, &c.; secondly, by canals or rail-roads, at the least expense of labor and capital. That city, then, that can be approached with exportable products with the least expense, will be the one naturally through which all the imports should come. To determine, then, the best system of trade for the whole population of every section, we must divide the country into its natural divisions, and assign to each its natural amount of business. If we establish our entire foreign and domestic trade on this natural basis, it will advance most rapidly the aggregate wealth and prosperity of the Union at large, and enable us in the shortest time to excel all other countries. The present population of the United States, on the Atlantic and Gulf slope of the Rocky Mountains, have for their natural outlets cities or sites in Texas, Louisiana, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, the Carolinas, Virginia, Maryland, Pennsylvania, New-York and Massachusetts, also having natural limits to the amount of trade that for the interest of general population would naturally flow to them. At this time the most important are Boston, New-York, and Philadelphia, in the commercial and manufacturing states; Baltimore, Charleston, Mobile, New-Orleans, and Galveston, are the most prominent in the agricultural states. In the two sections there are Boston and New York as the principal outlets for the Northern and Eastern States, New-Orleans and Mobile as the most prominent natural outlets in the agricultural states. The omitted table A, shows the circulation of bank paper in each state, the specie to redeem it, the exports and imports of each, their population, square miles, and public debt, an examination of which will readily show the most unnatural and injurious system of trade that could well exist amongst intelligent citizens living in a government of equality and justice. This table at once shows that in the agricultural states all great interests are withering under the unnatural and extremely unhealthy system of our foreign trade. The cities in the Northern and Eastern States, during the year ending June 30th, 1850, exported $70,249,809, and imported $155,291,737, showing that by our present system of trade they received over eighty-five millions imports more than a natural system of trade would entitle them to.

The Southern and grain-growing Western States exported through their own ports $81,115,702, and imported $21,395,805, showing that they imported near sixty millions less than a proper trade would justify. On this large amount the consumers of foreign goods pay, to a great extent, importers' profits, jobbers' profits, double shipping, storage, drayage, and wharfage. The retail merchants spend double the time and money in going to make their purchases as would be necessary under a well regulated system of Direct Trade. Under this doubly expensive system, the retail merchants cannot sell foreign goods to consumers on an average at less than double the original foreign cost abroad.

The consumers of foreign goods in the southern and western states pay not less than twenty millions of dollars annually more for their goods than would

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be necessary under a properly regulated system of Direct Trade. This twenty millions, however, is but a portion of the loss to the South and West. The Southern and Western States, as classed off in table A, make annually for export one hundred and fifty millions worth of produce, which, by the completion of a few of the rail-roads now in progress, would naturally find its way out at southern ports, and by such a system as can and should be adopted by every southern seaport would, as soon as in full operation, put their import trade up to one hundred and fifty millions of dollars, with all the advantageous consequences, to all classes of our citizens, following such a change. Of what use are rail-roads without freights and passengers? Where the necessity for banks, without a use for their circulation or accommodation? How can agriculture and manufactures prosper, without commercial facilities? On reference to the table, it will be seen that New-Orleans, which exports nearly as great an amount as New-York, and should export double, only imports ten millions to New-York's one hundred and ten millions. As New-Orleans and Mobile, and New-York and Boston, are the greatest ports naturally for the two sections, we will present a view of their trade and banking:

	Exports.	Imports.	Bank Circulation.	Specie.
New-Orleans and Mobile.....	$48,650,208	$11,625,861	$7,386,000	$8,503,000
New-York and Boston.....	63,394,563	141,498,208	40,306,000	14,370,000

It appears from this statement, that while New-Orleans and Mobile bank capital is making about five per cent. on its specie, New-York and Boston capital is making over twenty. For the ten years passed, New-Orleans has not been able to keep out as great a paper circulation as she had specie. New-York and Boston, by their monopolizing, to a great extent, the import trade, and, consequently, domestic trade, from artificial consequences, are also monopolizing the profits on banking. As the heavy payments are due to New-York and Boston, as fast as they make collections, should they be in Louisiana or Alabama bank paper, specie, or exchange on London, Liverpool, Boston, or New-York is required, and their paper returned on them. As their paper is not, therefore, ultimately received in payment for debts due to New-York and Boston, there is not the same demand for it as a circulating medium in the interior. But the amount of indebtedness being greatly beyond the natural limits of New-York and Boston trade, and their bank paper being received in payment, gives them more than their natural field of circulation. This applies to all the states of the Union that import less than their natural limits, as well as to Louisiana and Alabama.

As the proper adjustment of our foreign and domestic trade, on the principles of economy laid down, involves the value of city, town, and country property, agricultural and manufacturing prosperity, the profits on bank, rail-road and canal stocks, as well as population and political power, it becomes one of the highest consideration to all classes. To make the regulation properly and understandingly, it requires a very close scrutiny into every state and section of our widely extended country now settled.

The New-England States are five in number. They contain 63,326 square miles, or a fraction over the size of Virginia. They are naturally by far the poorest five states in the Union as to soil, climate, mineral and vegetable productions. They contain a population of 2,727,397, engaged mostly in manufactures, commerce and the fisheries. A large majority of their citizens have, for many years, been the advocates of high taxes, extravagant expenditures of the public funds, and government protection to favored classes. The government allows them fishing bounties, tonnage duties on their shipping, and protection to their domestic manufactures. These advantages, with their large import trade, which naturally belongs to southern cities, with their industry and ingenuity and economy, have made them increase very rapidly in wealth and population. They have a constitutional chronic infection of the *isms*, which are as dangerous to good government and morality as Asiatic cholera to individuals; and more contagious. Their leading statesmen opposed the acquisition of Louisiana, Texas annexation, and the Mexican war; have been in favor of confining our population to narrow limits, the consequence of which would be

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a reduction in wages of labor. Their fanatical opinions, with their desire of political power for sectional aggrandizement, induce them to invite the foreign pauper population of Europe by millions to our shores, by proffering to give them the public lands that they deny the right of their southern brethren to purchase from the government and settle, only on degrading conditions of being ruled in their property by Mexican laws.

The other commercial and manufacturing states are, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, New-York, Ohio and Michigan. They contain 197,027 square miles, and a population of 8,265,711. These states are much richer, naturally, than the New-England States, in vegetable and mineral productions. Iron ore, coal and copper are abundant; a large portion of them are productive in grain and vegetable productions common to cold climates. Agriculture, manufactures and commerce, all have a share of capital and labor devoted to their success. Commerce is the ruling interest, and in consequence of southern inattention, and the vigorous prosecution of that branch of industry and enterprise by New-York, she has, to a great extent, monopolized the foreign and domestic trade of the Union. She spent forty millions on her canals, which are frequently closed with ice, and sixty millions on the New-York and Erie, and other rail-roads, to connect her with the Lake and Mississippi trade. These improvements, with her extensive foreign trade, have turned freights and passengers up stream in the Mississippi valley. Although her works of internal improvement cost a large amount, the advance on real estate in New-York alone will doubly pay the whole amount; besides rents, rail-road and canal stocks, bank stocks, and all interests are made to prosper in proportion to the extent of trade.

Before the Revolutionary war, Virginia exported and imported three times more than New-York, and had a greater population. New-York has now thirty-three members in Congress and Virginia thirteen. In 1769, Virginia imported $4,085,472. The same year New-York imported $907,200; for the year ending 30th June, 1850, Virginia imported $426,399, New-York imported $111,123,524,; this is a change in trade as remarkable as that in Hayti produced by the abolition of African slavery. In 1789, Hayti exported 73,573,300 lbs. Muscovado sugar. The French, during their revolutionary days, abolished slavery. In 1840, under African free labor, Hayti exported 741 lbs. sugar.

The great change brought about in the trade of the northern and southern states, has been caused by an almost exclusive application of capital and labor in the South to agricultural pursuits; and the greater amount of capital and labor in the northern states being employed in commerce, internal improvements and manufactures, has given the northern people many millions annually of southern and western capital, that could have been profitably employed in the South and West, which has enabled them to receive all the protection from the Federal Government, for the encouragement of domestic manufactures, and tonage duties to build up commerce. In this manner the northern and New England sections have been receiving for many years a constant flow of capital from the South and West, which, according to the best calculation that can be made, since 1808, has amounted in government protection to nine hundred millions of dollars, and about a similar amount has been lost to the South and West in consequence of their indirect and expensive system of trade. Under this state of things, the present prosperity of the commercial and manufacturing states is of very uncertain duration, as all unnatural systems of prosperity must be. Should the South and West, in the next five or ten years, embark extensively in commerce, internal improvements and manufactures, as it is clearly their interest to do, and the seat of commerce and manufactures be established in the most congenial parts of these sections, the present appearance of things will undergo a wonderful revolution. At this time the rapid progress of the various *isms* in the commercial and manufacturing states, must make the lovers of justice, order and good government, begin to feel the unhappy European uncertainty in the future. To accomplish the abolition of slavery is only one of the visionary dogmas of the day; the same principle will abolish rights to all property and all opinions not in accordance with its own. Unless this spirit is soon checked, the standing armies common in Europe will soon be absolutely necessary in a

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number of the northern states. Mob law is already stronger than civil law. In a very considerable portion of New-York, land-rents cannot be regularly collected short of force of arms.

The commercial and manufacturing states owe a debt of $92,154,118, which, if a healthy system of trade were established, would be at least four times, according to means, as great as that due by the agricultural states. A proper adjustment of the export and import trade would not give these states more than one-fourth of the Union.

The agricultural states are, Louisiana, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, Texas, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, North Carolina, Virginia, Maryland, Delaware, Tennessee, Kentucky, Missouri, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa and Wisconsin.

They contain an area of 1,043,686 square miles, which is four times as large as the commercial and manufacturing states, and nine times the size of Great Britain, and would, at her density of population to the square mile, support two hundred millions of human beings. They contain now a population of twelve millions; lie in a compact body on the Atlantic and gulf slope of the Rocky Mountains, with the great Mississippi River, making its way from the Lakes, through their centre, to the Gulf of Mexico, which is the great ocean river, sufficiently large to contain all the shipping of the world. Within their limits are soils, climates, and seasons, capable of producing all the elements of food and raiment necessary for civilized man, in the greatest profusion, with timber sufficient to build all the boats, ships, steam-vessels and houses that may be required for the next thousand years; water-power more than sufficient to drive all the machinery of Europe and America; vast coal-fields, inexhaustible for ages; iron ore, of the best quality, in the midst of the coal-fields, to an extent that knows no limit, with thirty thousand miles steamboat navigation emptying into the gulf and Atlantic at sufficient points for all useful purposes; with more than two thousand miles of sea and gulf coast, never closed by ice, or even obstructed. This country is now the empire of agriculture.

In consequence of low grading and cheap right of way, rail-roads can be built at one-third less cost than in the commercial and manufacturing states; they will, therefore, be able to convey passengers and freights lower. The Mobile and Ohio, and Alabama and Tennessee river rail-roads, commencing at Lake Michigan and Lake Erie, and terminating at the Bay of Mobile on the gulf, will be to other roads what the Mississippi river is to other rivers. Mobile will, therefore, become the great outlet, by railway, that New-Orleans is by water. The natural shape of the country points out the states of Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Missouri and Tennessee, the upper parts of Arkansas, Mississippi, and Alabama, as the heart of the rail-road system for this great slope of basin. This region will become the empire of manufactures. On the gulf, where all the productions of this inexhaustible country has a tendency to get an outlet, will become the empire of commerce. Here, at all seasons of the year, vessels can go and come by the assistance of the gulf-stream and trade-winds. From the nature of things, these will be the great highways of general commerce for centuries. One of the results of the war with Mexico, will be to turn the trade of the Pacific, to a great extent, across by the land route. Mobile and New-Orleans will then be in a central position for extensive trade with surrounding countries. London and Liverpool, New-York and Boston, will be far out on the outskirts.

Southern seaports not only have advantages of a back country containing all the natural elements in the highest degree of agricultural, commercial and manufacturing prosperity, but they have a population that renders more safety and stability to investments in any pursuit of life than any of the surrounding nations. None of the dangerous dogmas of the day can flourish in any of the slave or free states belonging to this division. Rights of property, according to our constitution, are strictly regarded and complied with without difficulty. They contain the best material for a defensive war of the age—a slave population, the most effective laborers for a warm climate, under the best discipline and most skilful direction of any other people, in numbers sufficient to raise the means of army subsistence for any probable war, too well fed, clothed and taken care of, to be restless or unruly, and the least dangerous from insurrection. If the three millions of the African race now in these

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states were suddenly destroyed, millions of the white race in Europe and America would suffer for food and raiment. These states have a citizen army of over one million of freemen, ready, without distinction of party, to defend their rights nd liberties at the first call; with soils, climates and productions within their own limits, rendering them entirely independent of the rest of mankind. They owe a public debt of $94,346,558, which, for their vast resources, is very small, their yearly surplus of exportable produce being one hundred and fifty millions dollars worth.

Within the last fifty years they have reclaimed a vast wilderness from savage worthlessness, and converted it into cultivated fields of great usefulness to themselves and surrounding nations. Without government aid, they have excelled all other people in agriculture, now making an annual surplus to supply the wants of other nations, greater than any other country, regardless of extent of territory or numbers of laborers. At the same time they have paid a sum to build up commerce and manufactures in an uncongenial clime, which, spent economically within their own limits, would have made them first in commerce and manufactures as well as agriculture. They have enlightened, civilized, christianized and made useful to themselves and surrounding nations, a greater number of the African race than misguided philanthropy has or ever can do. Their vast agricultural productions, if properly used, will enable them, without civil commotion or bloodshed, to preserve our peace and tranquillity, our Union and liberty. Every patriotic citizen, then, within our country, should rally under our colors to battle in a common country's cause and the cause of mankind.

From a review of the whole subject, it is evident that the present unnatural concentration of commerce and manufactures in the northern and New-England States, is a very great annual drawback on the aggregate wealth, prosperity, and progress of the Union. In consequence of its increasing their political power and thereby placing in their possession the direction of the federal government—under its influences at war with justice—the political equality of the citizens of the different states is destroyed, and the protection of person and property, by land and sea, guarantied to every citizen of every state and section defeated, the fundamental principles of our political compact annulled, and the harmony, tranquillity, and stability of the whole Union endangered. It is, therefore, the highest duty of every lover of our present form of government and stability of the Union to make an exertion to create a natural and healthy system of agricultural, commercial, and manufacturing pursuits throughout our extensive country. How can this be done in the shortest time is the great question.

If we were to receive news that Great Britain was making every preparation within her power to prosecute a war upon us, to overthrow our present form of government and establish her system, we would all enter the great contest for the preservation of our rights, political and personal liberty. Troops would be called out from every state and territory. Our ablest officers would be placed in command. A force, according to the importance of the post, would be marched to every seaport. All our citizens, by every means in their power, would give aid and assistance to the armies. If an Arnold were found amongst us, unless he succeeded in making his escape, he would be hung as high as Haman. What has been we might reasonably expect again under similar circumstances. We know our armies, when well organized under able commanders, have proved victorious in every war against all odds of numbers. We know that a small army, composed of good materiel, well organized, and skilfully commanded, can defeat many, indifferently organized and directed. Our policy in defending our coast would be to send a force, able, on the first onset of the campaign, to gain a decisive victory, as that would inspire our forces and discourage the enemy.

It is true there is now no direct, open war of arms against us, yet it requires no prophet to see, in the present natural course of events, gradually and rapidly growing, one amongst the most bloody wars recorded on the pages of history. Individuals and nations at times are placed in circumstances that one false step decides their future existence. We now have it in our power, if we will at once seize the favorable opportunity, of gaining a great political victory—not by the shedding of brother's blood by brother, as Washington, Adams, Hancock, Jef-

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ferson, Franklin, and their ever-to-be-remembered compatriots, were compelled to do, in order to secure political liberty—but by a commercial and manufacturing revolution, which, instead of burthening us with heavy taxes, will annually advance our aggregate wealth by many millions.

On commencing this war, we find our opponents already fully organized and drilled; our own forces scattered over an extensive country, without any organization or discipline. To offset this we find ourselves very favorably situated in one very important particular. We have their campaign provision, and our own, too, already in possession, which of course must decide the victory in our favor, if we are capable of properly using and successfully defending this important advantage. Their commercial and manufacturing prosperity now almost entirely rests upon our large surplus of exportable produce. We have been in the habit of letting them have the use of the greater portion of these exports without interest, and paying double in profits and charges, which would be necessary if conducted by our own citizens, through our own ports, on the most advantageous plan, to make our section bloom with prosperity. All then that is required to ensure success, is to organize properly a force competent in every way to use our means for our own advantage, without letting them get the control as they have heretofore. This can be done best on military principles. Let every state raise an army of capitalists in numbers and amount, sufficient to carry every seaport on the coast at the first onset. This can be best done by getting the exports from, and amount of goods sold in the region of any port that can most conveniently obtain their supplies at such port. It is practicable under the system proposed, by incorporating the Alabama Direct Trade and Exchange Company, to lay down foreign goods in our cities, towns, villages, and landings, in proper quantities, lower than possibly can be done by New-York and Boston, which will, of course, take the trade. If the South and West, in this manner, revolutionize the trade of the country, they will change the relative sectional population, and, as a consequence, the political power. They have always been just and liberal to the North, and therefore, if they had political power, would, in all probability, use it with justice and liberality to all sections. We might then calculate that our country would move on rapidly to pre-eminence among nations. This is one side of the picture. There is another. By our conduct events may take a different turn. Samson had power at one time to slay the Philistines, regardless of numbers. He was enticed from duty, bound while asleep, shorn of his locks of strength and his eyes put out. We are this day, physically, the most powerful people of the age; but there is a Delilah enticing us, deceptively, in order that we may sleep until she binds us with a cord of free-soil states, that our locks of strength may be shorn from us; which states, to a great extent, are to be reared up by the pauper population of Europe. They are now lean, lank, degraded, weakly human beings, entitled to our pity. When our lands, with the fat thereof, shall be divided amongst them, the change in their condition will be so sudden and great that they will know no limit to universal equality. Our fanatical neighbors, with the aid of a few foreign emissaries, can soon raise a crusade against their southern brethren, on whose means they have been warmed into striking power. In the mean time our taxes will be increased; we will contribute millions to increase the wealth and power of another section. The love of power and sectional aggrandizement, aided by fanaticism, will encroach upon our dearest rights and liberties, until political and national death, under the circumstances, will be preferred to longer existence. The southern sword, seldom known to falter, will be drawn. Vigorously assaulted by cool, calculating power, and furiously assailed by fanaticism, attacked on all sides, by sea and by land, in front and rear, the deathly conflict will rage beyond a parallel, until our common country will be drenched with blood from sea-shore to mountain. Those who now fear to meet the gathering storm, and disperse or roll it back, may well then call on the rocks and mountains to fall upon them and hide them from their furious enemies. No human foresight can predict on which side victory will rest, but all can see a powerful check, a stop to civilization, progress and well-regulated human liberty on the North American Continent.

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Every southern seaport city, except Baltimore, is doing an unnatural and less extensive import trade than would be entirely legitimate, and can add greatly to their own and the prosperity of the surrounding population by extending their commercial operations. Alabama and Louisiana, the one in Mobile, the other in New-Orleans, each holds a great key to the future prosperity and progress of the millions of human beings that are to inhabit the great Mississippi valley. In the present condition of the world the cities above named are of vastly greater importance in a *pecuniary, political,* and *military* point of view, than Gibraltar, which is the key to the Mediterranean. After the adoption of the United States Constitution, the possession of Louisiana by a foreign power, and the consequent embarrassments attending the free navigation of the Mississippi, threatened seriously the dissolution of the Union. In consequence of the modern system of rail-roads, Alabama holds a pass no less important than New-Orleans. A failure to remove obstructions to free trade and travel through these important passes, leaves the population of Western Virginia and Ohio, Tennessee, Kentucky, Indiana, Michigan, Illinois, Iowa, Wisconsin, Missouri, Arkansas, a portion of Texas, and a vast territory back to the Rocky Mountains, as well as Louisiana and Alabama, with parts of other states, whose interest it is to have an outlet through the gulf, practically in the same condition that a portion of the valley was before the acquisition of Louisiana. Access the most perfect to each city, from every direction, by land and water, is the true policy of the respective states to which they belong, and of the Union at large. The obstructions to a free access to each city from all directions, consist in the shallowness of the channels at the mouth of the Mississippi and of Mobile bay, they being too shallow to admit of large-class vessels. But the greatest obstruction is that of the Iberville River, which is entirely obliterated for some distance, in consequence of obstructions heretofore thrown into it, and also the want of postal lines making regular passages to and from important ports within our own limits and to foreign countries. There is also needed the completion of the main rail-road trunks from the Upper Mississippi valley to Mobile and New-Orleans. The removal of these obstructions will probably come under national and state legislation for aid. Appropriations on the part of Congress will be within federal jurisdiction to an amount sufficient to deepen the mouth of the Mississippi and Mobile bay, so as to admit large-class vessels—clear the Iberville River from obstructions that will permit a free passage of first-class steamboats from the Mississippi into Lake Pontchartrain. Appropriations of one hundred thousand dollars each, to four lines of steamers or other vessels, from Mobile to ports in Europe, South America, California, Asia, and the Mediterranean, with the view of touching at all points on their respective routes desirable; appropriations of alternate sections of public lands in aid of a branch trunk of the Mobile and Ohio Rail-road to New-Orleans; appropriations of lands in aid of the great rail-road now in process of construction from Lake Erie, by way of Cincinnati, Ohio, Frankfort, Kentucky, Nashville, Tennessee, Selma, in Alabama, to Mobile, connecting the Lakes with the Gulf; also appropriations of alternate sections in aid of the two great railways now in process of construction, one connecting Memphis, Tennessee, with Charleston, South Carolina, and which is destined, as the country is settled, to progress until it reaches the Pacific coast; the other connecting Savannah, Georgia, with Vicksburg, Mississippi, will make its way through Texas.

Extensive bodies of public lands are now in Alabama unsold, and must remain government property many years, unless rail-roads are constructed through them.

The rights and interests alike of the citizens of the Mississippi valley and the Union, require the re-opening of Iberville River, in the State of Louisiana, which formerly connected Lake Ponchartrain, by way of Lake Maurepas, with the Mississippi, at a short distance below the town of Baton Rouge. This river was formerly an open, navigable stream, and of sufficient note to be recognized and established, by the treaty of Paris in 1763, as a part of the boundary line between the possessions of Great Britain and France. The Iberville River, at this period, was an outlet of the Mississippi, so large as to give the appellation of an island to that part of Louisiana on which New-Orleans is

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situated,—is now, at its point of former efflux from that stream, entirely filled up and obliterated. It was open down to the period of the last war with Great Britain. During the war, General Jackson, for the common protection of the country, had obstructions thrown into it, under the impression that the enemy might attempt to pass through the lake and Iberville River into the Mississippi and fall upon New-Orleans from above. As it is or was a natural highway, the citizens of the United States are entitled to its free use for purposes of navigation. As it was obstructed through the action of the *Federal Government*, the same agency is bound to remove the obstructions. These obstructions all being removed and improvements completed, would be equivalent, for all practical purposes, to placing each city on the Gulf Stream, Mississippi River, and the great railways of the valley. A healthy city on the gulf is necessary to draw off the upper Mississippi trade and travel from New-York and Boston. The annual mortality, in proportion to population, is less in Mobile than New-York. She can, therefore, so far as health is concerned, turn the business to the gulf coast. New-Orleans would then receive a greater trade and travel through Mobile than she ever will do, so long as the present system continues through New-York and Boston. Louisiana is, therefore, interested in building up Mobile.

New-York has expended over one hundred millions of dollars on rail-roads and canals, to carry the interior trade through her city. Alabama may now secure an outlet for, and an intercourse with, a region of greater extent, whose population can reach Mobile at a less expense than New-York, by an outlay of capital, on the part of her citizens, individually, of one-fourth the sum New-York has expended.

We annex a table, which shows the number of railways in each state, miles in operation, and miles in course of construction, with the cost:

Table showing the extent of Railways Completed and under Traffic, and Capital invested in the different Countries:

	Miles.	Cost.
United Kingdom of Gt. Britain	7,000..	£250,000,000
German States	5,342..	66,775,000
United States	11,654..	70,000,000
France	1,018..	48,781,000
Belgium	532..	9,576,000
Russia	600..	9,000,000
Italy	170..	3,000,000

AGRICULTURAL STATES.

States.	No. of Railways.	Miles in operation.	Miles in course of construct'n.	Cost.
Delaware	1...	16...	— ...	$600,000
Maryland	3...	255...	172...	14,220,503
Virginia	16...	485...	735...	8,930,421
North Carolina	3...	249...	223...	4,100,000
South Carolina	7...	383...	403...	8,703,678
Georgia	13...	804...	181...	15,100,080
Florida	2...	54...	54...	250,000
Alabama	7...	135...	955...	1,936,208
Mississippi	4...	100...	518...	1,770,000
Louisiana	7...	117...	25...	1,131,000
Texas	1...	— ...	72...	—
Tennessee	7...	134...	558...	1,800,000
Kentucky	6...	93...	446...	1,751,226
Indiana	20...	538...	1,117...	9,690,000
Michigan	4...	474...	— ...	8,656,340
Illinois	14...	271...	1,606...	5,100,000
Missouri	2...	249...	180...	—
Iowa	1...	— ...	— ...	—
Wisconsin	2...	10...	230...	400,000
Total	120...	4,377...	7,481...	$85,139,456

COMMERCIAL AND MANUFACTURING STATES.

States.	No. of Railways.	Miles in operation.	Miles in course of construct'n.	Cost.
Maine	10...	283...	175...	$8,191,693
New-Hampshire	16 ..	463...	76...	14,144,755
Vermont	9...	369...	167...	13,116,553
Massachusetts	37...	1,153...	67...	51,884,572
Rhode Island	1...	50...	— ...	2,614,484
Connecticut	13...	510...	64...	18,198,599
New-York	44...	1,946...	946...	67,686,155
Pennsylvania	51...	1,323...	535...	49,662,918
New-Jersey	10...	290...	40...	7,445,000
Ohio	26...	890...	1,481...	17,066,661
Total	217...	7,277...	3,551...	$250,012,410

Average cost per mile in northern and New-England states	$37,500
Average cost in South and West	19,600

In a military point of view, the importance of connecting New-Orleans and Mobile with the interior states, by railway, considering the great number of rapid-moving war-steamers now belonging to various powers, cannot well be over estimated. In fifteen days' time a large fleet of war-steamers could cross the ocean and assail the two cities; their possession by an enemy would be disastrous to the interest of the valley population.

In the early history of Alabama, freights were conveyed on her rivers in flatboats and barges, propelled by manual labor. What son of hers would now be willing to abandon our floating palaces and return to the keels? Those who oppose rail-roads advocate the same principle. There is, to accommodate our entire population, as great a necessity for rail-roads with passenger and fright cars propelled by steam, instead of common wagons or coaches drawn by animal power, as there is for steamboats; and the average gain to the

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whole community, in trade and travel, is equally as great. Of course, those who run boats where there are not freights and passengers sufficient to pay, will sink capital. Those who build rail-roads where there should only run a plank or common wagon road, will do the same; those who plant on unproductive soils will be equally unfortunate.

The responsibility of Alabama at this time is exceedingly great. Her commanding position requires deliberate and skilful action. She is now capable of doing much for herself and surrounding sisters. She is in a similar situation to many states of the Union, locally, that Mobile county is to a large number of counties in South Alabama and Eastern Mississippi. If there were no public highway by land through Mobile county to the city, and many roads in other counties around seeking an outlet through her, and, from indifference to her own prosperity and theirs, refuse to make an order for and open a road, she would soon be considered *foreign* in her position. The state can now have completed through her limits great railway lines of the first importance to her in every sense of the word, without doing anything more than indorse bonds that the companies of at least three of the roads can secure her from final loss beyond a doubt. She is now in a situation to advance more rapidly, by proper action, every important interest within her limits, than any of the coast states from Maine to the Rio Grande. She has climate, soils, mineral and vegetable productions, with advantages from location, that render her second to no state in the Union, of the same area, in the great pursuits of agriculture, commerce and manufactures. The completion of the Mobile and Ohio, and the Alabama and Tennessee Rail-roads, with others drawing in trade and travel from the east and west, would give to all her great interests advantages that would enable them at least to keep pace with the most flourishing. She is capable of supporting a population double the five New-England States, and half the capital and labor expended to build her up, that has been made to flow on them, will make her worth them all. She has a population of 771,071 on 50,722 square miles; owes a public debt of $3,983,616; her principal city, Mobile, is at all seasons free from ice. Through the Gulf Stream, trade-winds, and Caribbean Sea, she is open to the trade of the world; subject to overflow from neither river nor ocean; midway between the rich products of the tropics and the staple and provision-growing states of the Mississippi valley; possessing one amongst the most healthy sites on the coast, with a harbor sufficient for the navies of the world, and room to build up a city equal in population to any on the globe; backed, in the interior of the state, with extensive bodies of the most fertile lands; abundant water power, inexhaustible forests of timber, rich beds of iron ore and extensive coal fields in close proximity to each other, all in the midst of the cotton, sugar and grain-growing regions. She requires no uncertain government protection to make her among the first in agriculture, commerce and manufactures. She is in a situation at this time, by a grand move on an extensive scale, in commerce, on principles of proper economy, to make all her great interests bound forward with unusual rapidity. If the surrounding states continue their unprofitable and dependent policy, Alabama should only embark the more rapidly and to a greater extent. Under such circumstances, with the necessary capital and skill, one more generation would find her in this great group of states, what New-York is to the thirty named. During the year 1850, there were sold in Alabama, sixteen millions dollars worth of merchandise; of this sum not less than eight millions were foreign, nearly all imported through northern cities, taxed to a great extent with double profits, drayage, storage and insurance. Under such a system of trade, the retail merchants cannot furnish consumers of foreign goods at less than one hundred per cent. on original cost, which would leave four millions as the foreign cost of our imported merchandise. Under a well-regulated system of direct trade, these four millions would go into consumer's hands at six millions five hundred thousand dollars, and leave as great a profit to the merchant as he now receives, and save one million five hundred thousand dollars to consumers, a sum equal, annually, to three years' taxes. The bill under consideration proposes to accomplish this by incorporating a limited partnership in the shape of a joint-stock company, composed of capitalist and business men in all parts of the country, with power to

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own ships, boats or vessels, buy and sell produce and manufactures at home and abroad on commission, receive and pay out deposits, deal in foreign and domestic exchange generally, make advances on produce, manufactures and merchandise, and to increase their capital stock, if necessary, to three millions of dollars.

For the protection of the community against abuses, the officers and directors are required to make bonds and take suitable oaths for the faithful performance of their duties; make annual reports showing who are the stockholders, the amount of each one's shares, and the true condition of the company. The bill also enables the governor to appoint commissioners to examine the entire business of the company, and report thereon publicly. If the company abuses its powers, the legislature can annul their charter.

Well organized, with competent agencies at different foreign and domestic points of trade, they would not only be highly useful to the mercantile and planting community in making their sales, purchases and exchanges, but could also, to great advantage, make purchases at home and abroad of materials or machinery for our rail-road and manufacturing companies.*

* There were some valuable tables annexed to this paper, which are omitted. The reader can obtain all the material embraced in them by reference to the pages of the Review and of the Industrial Resources.—[Ed.

ART. V.—VALLEY OF THE AMAZON.

[The increasing interest which attaches to everything that relates to the resources of several of the South American states, induces us to publish, *in extenso*, the valuable contributions of Lieut. Maury, made during last winter, and in part copied into some of our numbers. The papers are worthy of study and reflection, and will be continued in our next number. With those we have already published, they present the subject complete in almost every aspect.]

THE AMAZON COUNTRY, ITS CLIMATE AND PRODUCTIONS—THE LA PLATA THE MISSISSIPPI OF THE SOUTHERN HEMISPHERE—RIVER BASINS COMPARED—COMMERCE OF THE LA PLATA, ITS VALUE—PRODUCTIONS—CANAL BETWEEN THE WATERS OF THE LA PLATA AND THE AMAZON—THE PARAGUAY COUNTRY—CATTLE RAISING—GOLD AND DIAMONDS—AN IMMENSE DRUG PLANTATION—THE RICHES OF THE VEGETABLE EXCEED THOSE OF THE MINERAL KINGDOM—GOLD WASHING IN THE STREETS—IMMENSE YIELD OF DIAMONDS—MULE TRANSPORTATION—A COMMERCIAL ANOMALY—COMMUNICATION BETWEEN THE LA PLATA AND THE AMAZON—JAPANESE POLICY OF BRAZIL—EXPLORATION OF THE AMAZON BY OFFICERS OF THE U. S. NAVY—PILCOMAYO—"CITY OF SILVER"—MAGNIFICENT VIEW OF THE PRODUCTIONS OF TROPICAL, TEMPERATE, AND FRIGID ZONES.

The "policy of commerce," and not the "policy of conquest," is the policy of the United States.

The spirit of the age, animated by private enterprise, is every day seeking new fields for its peaceful triumphs, and commerce can accomplish throughout the world no achievements like those which will note its coming, and signalize its marches up and down the Amazon, and the other great rivers of that greatest of water-sheds, the Atlantic slopes of South America.

Men may talk about Cuba and Japan; but of all the diplomatic questions of the day, the free navigation of those majestic water-courses, and their tributaries, is to this country the most interesting and important. It surpasses them all. It is paramount.

The country that is drained by the Amazon, if reclaimed from the savage, the wild beast, and the reptile, and reduced to cultivation now, would be capable of supporting with its produce the population of the whole world.

It is a rice country. The common yield of rice is forty for one. It is reaped five months after planting, and may be planted at any time of the year. Thus the farmer may plant one bushel of rice to-day—in five months hence he will gather forty from it. Planting these forty, he may, in another five months, gather sixteen hundred bushels. —In ten months the earth yields an

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increase there of a thousand-fold and more.

Corn, too, may be planted at any time, and in three months is fit for gathering. Thus the husbandman there may gather four crops of corn a year. Its seasons are an everlasting summer, with a perpetual round of harvests.

It is the policy of commerce—and commerce is the policy of these United States—to open that river to steam, and its valley to settlement and cultivation; its earth, its air, and its waters, to the business and wants of trade and traffic.

There, upon that Atlantic slope of South America, in the valley of the La Plata, and in the valley of the Amazon, Nature in all her ways has been most bountiful.

There the vegetable kingdom displays its forces in all their most perfect grandeur, and in all their might; and there, too, the mineral kingdom is most dazzling with its wealth.

In that region of country wagon-roads are few, turnpikes unknown, and the first railway has yet to be built; and though the La Plata drains a country nearly as large and many times more fertile than is our own Mississippi valley, and though that of the Amazon is twice as great, and its tributaries many times longer, more navigable, and numerous, yet the steamboat upon those waters is a problem almost untried. In the valley of the Amazon the plow is unknown; and the American rifle and axe, the great implements of settlement and civilization, are curiosities.

For more than three hundred years the white man has been established in that Amazonian basin, and for more than three hundred years it has remained a howling wilderness. Owing to the mismanagement of its rulers, the European has made no impression—none—no, not the least—upon its forests. How long shall this continue to be so?

Has diplomacy no arts, commerce no charms, by which this policy may be broken up: by which its rivers may be opened to navigation, its forests to settlement, its pampas to cultivation?

What commerce has done for South America is as nothing in comparison with what it will do. It has fringed only the sea-coast of that continent with settlement and cultivation. The great interior has never been touched. The heart of the country is a commercial blank; nor is it to be reached except through the powers of steam, and the free use of its majestic water-courses.

It is of this country—of the importance of settling it up, of sending there the emigrant, the steamboat, the axe, and the plow, with the messengers and agencies of commerce—that I wish to speak.

Let us, therefore, first see where it is, how far off it is, and what is its actual condition, and then we will be enabled the better to judge as to the true course of policy which it would be best for the commercial nations of the earth to take with regard to it.

The semi-continent of South America is very nearly in shape to that of a right-angled triangle. Its hypotenuse rests on the Pacific; one of its legs extends from Cape Horn to Cape St. Roque. Here the right angle is formed with the other leg, which extends from Cape St. Roque, in latitude 5 deg. south, to Cabo La Vela, of the Caribbean Sea, in latitude 12 deg. north.

The longer leg is that between capes Horn and St. Roque; it is 3,500 geographical miles in length. The other leg has only 2,500; but the hypotenuse, which stands on the Andes and rests on the Pacific, is more than 4,000 miles long.

This configuration exercises a powerful influence upon the climates of South America, especially as it regards its hydrography. The great rivers of that country, the mighty Amazon and the majestic La Plata, are resultants of this configuration. In consequence of having a sea-front which rests upon the short leg in the northern hemisphere, and looking to the northeast—and in consequence of having the sea-front which rests upon the long leg in the southern hemisphere, to look southeast, the northeast and the southeast trade-winds, as they come across the Atlantic filled with moisture, go full charged into the interior, dropping it in showers as they go, until they reach the snow-capped summits of the Andes, where the last drop, which that very low temperature can wring from them, is deposited to melt and feed the sources of the Amazon and the La Plata with their tributaries.

The northeast trade-winds commence to blow about the Tropic of Cancer, and coming from the quarter they do, they blow obliquely across the Atlantic. They

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evaporate from the sea as they go; and, impinging at right angles upon the South American shore-line that extends from Cape St. Roque to Cabo La Vela, they carry into the interior the vapor that forms the clouds that give the rain which supplies with water the Magdalena, the Orinoco, and the northern tributaries of the Amazon.

The volume of water discharged by these rivers into the sea is expressive of the quantity which those northeast trade-winds take up from the sea, carry in the clouds, and precipitate upon the water-shed that is drained by these streams. They are but pipes and gutters which nature has placed under the eaves of the great water-shed that has the Andes for a ridge-pole, the Caribbean Sea and North Atlantic for a cistern.

The trade-wind region of the North Atlantic affords the water-surface where the evaporation is carried on that supplies with rains, dews, and moisture, New-Granada, Venezuela, the three Guianas, and the Atlantic slopes of the Ecuador.

On the other hand, the southeast trade-winds commence to blow about the parallel of 30 deg. or 35 deg. south. They, too, come obliquely across the Atlantic, and strike perpendicularly upon the South American coast-line which extends from Cape St. Roque towards Cape Horn. They pass into the interior with their whole load of moisture, every drop of which is wrung from them before they cross the Andes. The quantity of moisture which is taken up from the sea and rained down upon this wonderfully fruitful country, may be seen in what the La Plata and the Amazon discharge back into the ocean.

Now, there is no tropical country in the world which has to windward, and so exactly to windward of it, such an extent of ocean in the trade-wind region. Consequently there is no inter-tropical country in the world that is so finely watered as is this great Amazon country of South America.

Along the Atlantic coast of the United States, along the coast of China and the east coast of New-Holland, the land trends along with the direction of the trade-winds of those regions. These winds, with their moisture, travel along parallel with the land. They do not blow perpendicularly upon it, nor push their vapors right across it into the interior, as they do in South America. The consequence is, none of those inter-tropical countries can boast of streams and water-courses like those of South America.

The shore line of eastern Africa is arranged like that of the South American water-shed; but it has not sea enough to windward to supply the vapor to feed springs enough to make large rivers.

The southeast trade-winds, when the monsoons of the Indian ocean will permit them to blow, strike perpendicularly upon the east coast of South Africa, as they do upon that of South America. In the American case, they blow perpetually—in the African case, for not half the year. They, therefore, cannot give Africa half as much rain as South America receives.

At Cape Guardafui the right angle of the African coast line is formed, as it is at Cape St. Roque for America; but the winds which cross this line between Cape St. Roque and the isthmus have traversed the Atlantic Ocean and Caribbean Sea—hence they reach the land dripping with moisture; whereas, in Africa, the northeast trades, which cross the coast-line from Cape Guardafui to the isthmus of Suez, have sucked up vapors from the Red Sea only—therefore the quantity of moisture which these winds carry into the interior of Africa is not by any means so great as that which those of the Atlantic carry over into South America. The difference is as great as is the difference of the evaporating surface exposed to the northeast trade-winds by the Atlantic on the one hand, and by the Red Sea on the other.

The two systems of trade-winds—the northeast and the southeast—meet in the interior of South America, somewhere between the equator and the Isthmus of Darien. This place of meeting is a place of calms, and where it is, there it is rainy.

This circumstance, and other meteorological agents, divide the seasons in the northern portions of South America, especially the valley of the Orinoco, into the rainy and the dry—six months of constant rain, six months of blighting drought, is the condition here.

Not so in the valley of the Amazon. There the weather is agreeable all the year round; and though more rain falls there in some months than in others, as it does here with us, still there as here,

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it may rain, and does rain, any day in the year.

Now, I think that any one who has followed me with a map will perceive why this inter-tropical region of South America, or that part of its water-shed which, from Panama to the parallel of 30° or 35° south, slopes towards the Atlantic, has, and ought to have, the most remarkable climate in the world. We have seen that Eastern Africa, and Eastern Africa alone, resembles it in configuration of shore line; but the evaporating surface and the supplies of vapor are wanting, and therefore South Africa cannot be nearly so well supplied with rains, and consequently with rivers, as is South America.

In all the other inter-tropical regions of the world—in India, in Western Africa, New Holland, and Polynesia—the year is divided into the rainy season and the dry; during the latter of which little or no water falls, springs go dry, and cattle perish, and dead bodies pollute the air. Then, too, stalks forth in those countries the "pestilence that walketh in darkness."

In the valley of the Amazon no such condition exists. There the fall of water, though copious—the river Amazon is the rain-guage—is not compressed within a few months, nor accompanied by the terrible hurricanes and tornadoes which rage at the change of seasons in India. Here, in America, gentle and fruitful showers fall daily, and tornadoes are rare.

Because the Amazon is in a tropical country, the public is disposed to judge of its climates by comparing them with the climates of other tropical countries—as India, for example. But for the reasons stated, and because there are no monsoons or other conditions to cause the valley of the Amazon to be parched with drought at one season, and drenched with rains at another—as India is on one hand, and the Orinoco country on the other—there is no more resemblance between the climates of India and of the Amazon than there is between the climates of Rome and Boston; and any one who would infer similarity of climate from the fact that Boston and Rome are in the same latitude, would not be more out than he who infers similarity of climate between India and Amazonia because they both are tropical countries.

Now, what ought to be the condition of an inter-tropical country whose plains are watered with frequent showers, unaccompanied by a single drought, during ages of perpetual summer? Why, fertility and salubrity; for in such a climate anything and everything will grow. The rapid production and constant decay of vegetable matter that have been going on there for thousands and thousands of years, must have made the soil rich with vegetable mould.

The fact that vegetation there is in perpetual activity—that there, there is no period of vegetable repose—that as fast as one leaf falls and begins to decay, other leaves, just putting forth, absorb its gases—these conditions make the valley of the Amazon one of the most salubrious and delightful of climates.

Having shown that the climate of the La Plata and Amazon country is a climate without droughts, and that it is a moist and warm climate, I have established enough to satisfy any one that the soil there, whatever be the substratum, must have upon it a rich vegetable mould, which the decay of the most rank vegetation during many ages must have formed.

I proceed now to show the present condition with the future resources and commercial capabilities of the great South American water-sheds. I will confine my attention to the rivers Amazon and La Plata, to their tributaries, and the valleys drained by them. But first, let us give our attention to the La Plata, and compare the extent of country drained by it with the extent drained by rivers in the northern hemisphere.

The valley of the Amazon lies in both hemispheres; it is the largest river basin in the world, but it belongs exclusively neither to the North nor to the South. Excluding the Amazon, therefore, from the comparison, the Mississippi, then, it will be perceived, drains the largest river basin in the northern, and the La Plata the largest in the southern hemisphere. Both these streams run from north to south, each one embracing a great variety of productions, and traversing many diversities of climate; but one runs towards the equator, the other from it.

The area of the principal river-basins which are drained into seas that are ac-

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cessible to ocean commerce, may be thus stated:—

In *America*.—The Amazon, area (including the Orinoco,) 2,048,480 square miles.

North America.—The Mississippi, area 982,000 square miles.

South America.—The La Plata, area 886.000 square miles.

Europe.—The Danube, area 234,000 square miles.

Africa.—The Nile, area 520,000 square miles.

Asia (China).—The Yang-tse-Keang, area 547,000 square miles.

India.—The Ganges, area 432,000 square miles.

It will thus be observed that the valley of the La Plata in area is the third in the world; that it is twice as large as the valley of the Ganges, and more than three times as large as the largest river basin in Europe.

The basin of the La Plata embraces all the latitudes, and more too, that are to be found in the valleys of the Indus, the Ganges and the Irawaddy—the great river-basins of India. It consequently has all the agricultural capacities, and more, that are to be found in the climates of India. These great resources of the La Plata for the most part lie dormant. They are hidden in the bosom of the earth, or concealed in the recesses of the mountains. The waters of the La Plata flow through climates that are favorable to the growth of sugar, of tea and coffee, of rice, hemp, and tobacco, of cotton and corn, of drugs, woods, dyes, and spices, and of almost all the agricultural staples of the earth.

The Rio de la Plata lies wholly within the southern hemisphere, and it is the greatest river that does so lie; consequently it has opposite seasons with those of the northern. When the husbandman is sowing in the north, then he who tills the earth in this beautiful river-basin will be gathering his crop; and consequently the planter, and the farmer, and the merchant of the La Plata, will have control of the northern markets for six months of every year, without a competitor.

The Rio de la Plata, properly speaking, is that arm of the sea which lies between the parallels of 33° and 36° of south latitude. Its breadth is a hundred miles or more, according to the place of measurement, and it is formed by the junction of the Parana and the Uruguay. I treat of all the country drained by these rivers and their tributaries as the valley of the La Plata.

The Uruguay is a beautiful stream. It takes its rise in the Brazilian province of Santa Catarina, on the western slopes of the "Serra do Mar," or the sea range of mountains. Its course is first westwardly and then southwardly; it is about seven hundred miles long; drains a rich, fertile, and tolerably well-settled country. For part of the way it is the boundary between Brazil, with the Banda Oriental on one side, and the Argentine Confederation on the other.

The Parana is a majestic river. It is formed by the junction of the two Brazilian streams, the Rio Grande and the Paranahiba. The former takes its rise near the parallel of 20° south, not far from the sea-shore, and in the wealthy province of Minas Geraes. The valley in which the head-waters of this river are gathered into the main stream is most magnificent. It is about two hundred miles broad in the widest part, by four hundred miles long. The course of the Rio Grande through it is due west; it maintains this course for about five hundred miles, until it meets the Paranahiba coming from the northward, where its sources are interlapped, and almost mingled with those of the Amazon.

The population of the two interior provinces of Minas Geraes and Goiaz, in which these two tributaries of the Parana take their rise, and in which they lie, is for the former one million, for the latter one hundred and fifty thousand.

The Japanese-like policy which has been observed with regard to scientific explorations of the La Plata and its tributaries has kept the world in the dark as to many parts of that valley.

Dr. Francia established in Paraguay, many years ago, a government founded upon the Japanese system. Rosas attempted an imitation of this policy so long as he was in power; and Brazil has always practised it. So that geographers really know very little as to the Brazilian tributaries of the La Plata, their navigability, and the commercial resources of the countries which they drain.

According to the map "Do Imperio do Brazil," published in 1846, under the auspices of the Geographical Society, at

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Rio de Janeiro, and which is now before me, the Parana, for the first five hundred miles below the junction of the Rio Grande and the Paranahiba, runs through uninhabited parts of the provinces of Goiaz, Matto Grosso, and San Paulo. Passing these uninhabited parts, it then runs through and among the Spanish republics of that region for about twelve hundred miles to its entrance into the Plata. Along this part of its route the country is pretty well settled, and, according to Montgomery Martin,* whose authority is more recent than that of the map of the Geographical Society of Brazil, must be in a high state of cultivation. Writing last year upon this river, he says:

"During the six or eight months that the Parana, or Plate river, was recently opened to European commerce, upwards of sixteen millions dollars' worth of goods were exchanged for produce, and this without any previously organized mercantile establishments or system. Two convoys of merchant ships, one of 110, and the other of 76 vessels, came down the river with full cargoes. It is true that this extent of trade was partly attributable to the accumulation of property, owing to the previous interdiction of commerce by General Rosas, whose exclusive policy is an imitation of that of Dr. Francia, as he has himself boasted. He is therefore entirely hostile to mercantile, or indeed to any intercourse, especially with Europeans. Were Rosas to succeed, he would form a state such as Japan has been for the last two centuries."

The commerce of this river, I know, is valuable; but whether it be so very valuable at this time as the above extract from Martin would make it, I doubt.

But, suppose it were one million instead of sixteen that was brought down through this unexpected free navigation for six or eight months, what would it not be under regular steam and free navigation at the end of six or eight years, when the steamboat and commerce shall have stimulated the productions of the country up to the capacity of its industrial capital?

Leaving the Parana, and traveling still further west, we come next to the Paraguay, the most magnificent tributary in this water-shed. Following it in its windings, it is navigable to the distance of about two thousand miles from the sea. It is the Missouri of the La Plata valley.

A friend who has been residing in the capital of the Republic of Paraguay for several years, returned thence a few months ago. I shall, therefore, draw upon him for information touching this interesting river and region of country: also, Francis del Castelnau, who traveled through that country in 1848–9, is quite full.

He also will afford me many details.

According to Hopkins, Paraguay is but another paradise.* Of this country and its commercial resources, says he:

"I can speak with the greatest certainty, from my own personal knowledge. Almost divided by the Tropic of Capricorn, its surface is like a chessboard, checkered here and there with beautiful pastures and magnificent forests. Unlike all other lands with which I am acquainted, it seems destined especially for the habitation of man. Here, in the eastern portion of our own land, the first settlers found the whole country covered with woods; west of the Mississippi the other extreme exists, in the vast extent of prairie, destitute of timber. On the north of Brazil, in a similar manner, are unbroken forests; in its southern parts, and throughout the Banda-Oriental, Entre-Rios, Corrientes, and the Argentine Republic, we find continuous pampas, like our prairies, in many instances without bearing the necessary fuel even for household purposes. Not so in Paraguay, where, added to a sufficiency for building fleets of a thousand steamers, its forests teem with every description of ornamental and useful woods.

"Beginning with the head-waters of the river Paraguay, we find the productions upon the Brazilian side to be gold and precious stones, sugar, molasses, hides of extraordinary size, hair, tallow, wax, deer and tiger skins, with rice, corn, and the different manufactures of the mandioca root; in Bolivia, gold and precious stones, silver, coffee—considered by good judges to be equal to Mocha—and Peruvian bark.

* See his Geographical and Statistical Atlas.

* See Bulletin of the American Geographical and Statistical Society, vol. i. Memoir on Paraguay, by E. A. Hopkins, Esq., United States Consul in Paraguay.

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"Though undoubtedly we could draw from these two countries many other productions of tropical America, yet it is in Paraguay that we find the greatest wealth of all these valleys."

Of medicinal herbs, they yield in great profusion "rhubarb, sarsaparilla, jalap, bezonia indica, sassafras, holywood, dragons' blood, balsam of copaiva, nux vomica, liquorice, and ginger."

Here, too, are found dyestuffs of the most exquisite tints. Among these includes cochineal, two kinds of indigo, a "vegetable vermilion, saffron, golden-rod, with other plants, producing all the tints of dark red, black and green."

In the forests are found sixty varieties of wood, valuable for ship-building, or as timber, or for cabinet work. Among them are the "*Seibo* tree," which, "when green, is spongy and soft as cork, and can be cut like an apple; but, when dry, is so hard as almost to defy the action of steel; the *Palo de vivora*, or snake-tree, whose leaves are an infallible cure for the poisonous bite of serpents; *Palo de lêche*, or milk tree, may be called a vegetable cow; and the *Palo de borracho*, or drunken tree, a vegetable distillery. The içica resin is found at the roots of trees under ground, and is a natural pitch, ready prepared to pay the seams of vessels."*

Many of them are said to yield gums and drugs of the rarest virtues, and of the most exquisite perfume. Though, coming from a far country, which commerce, in her loftiest flights has not yet been able to reach, many of these productions are not yet known to pharmacy or the mechanic arts. "They comprise," says Hopkins, "some of the most delicious perfumes and incense that can be imagined. Others again are like amber, hard, brittle, and insoluble in water. Some cedars yield a gum equal to gum arabic; others a natural glue, which, when once dried, is unaffected by wet or dampness."

Here, too, in these wilds flourish side by side the India-rubber tree, the vanilla, with its sweet-scented bean, and the *Palo-santo*, from which the gum guaiacum of our commerce is gathered.

Wild, too, in those wonderful forests, grow, mature and decay, annually and in large quantities, two or three kinds of hemp, the *nux saponica*, or soap-nut, the cocoa, yerba, matté of superior quality, two kinds of cotton, with vegetable oils, and wax in vast quantities.

The pampas are grazed by immense herds of cattle and horses; and great quantities of "hides, hair, horns, bones, tallow, &c., are lost for want of transportation."

"Upon the fertile alluvial banks of so many large streams, sugar-cane, cotton, tobacco of a superior quality, rice, mandioca, Indian corn, and a thousand other productions vegetate with profusion; whilst seven varieties of the bamboo line the river banks and dot the frequent lakes with islets of touching beauty."

In short, this traveler thus sums up his account of this glorious valley:

"We have found the forests spontaneously producing everything necessary for the comfort and luxury of mankind, from the beautiful cotton-tree that affords him clothing, to the colors which suit his fancy as a dye; and from the woods that furnish his ship and house, or ornament his *escritoire*, to the herb that cures his sickness, or the incense that delights his olfactories. It is only necessary to add, that the climate is favorable to all the useful grains and table vegetables, with delicious fruits to support the frame and gratify the palate."

But from the Republic of Paraguay, where Hopkins was, to the mouth of the La Plata, there were only some 1,500 miles of river navigation. Let us, therefore, ascend higher up the beautiful Paraguay, cross over into Brazil, ascend this river through the district "Dos Diamantes" to the city of "*Diamantino*," and thence trace its sources, up over their beds of bright jewels and golden sands, to their very fountain-head, as they leap spangled and sparkling from the "*Diamond* mountains."

Standing on these, we may contemplate the great "Divide," which separates the waters—if they be separated—of the Rio de la Plata from the waters of the Amazon.

This ridge extends from east to west over the distance in a straight line of more than 2,000 statute miles. On one side the streams run south; on the other, they flow north; and on both sides they wash down from this ridge gold, diamonds, and other precious stones. This auriferous and rich mineral region embraces many degrees of latitude, and

* Hopkins.

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extends through 30° of longitude. I propose to speak more of it at another time.

It is a question whether the waters of the La Plata and the Amazon do not unite through a natural canal, as do those of the Amazon and the Orinoco through the Casiqueare, and thus afford an inland navigation from Buenos Ayres, in 35° south, to the mouth of the Orinoco, where it empties in 11° north into the Caribbean Sea. Truly such a navigation would be bringing the commercial drainage of the Atlantic slopes of South America not only at our feet, but it would be emptying their treasures into the very lap into which our own Mississippi pours its waters, its surplus produce, and its wealth.

At any rate, whether there be a natural canal there now or not, we may look forward to the time when settlement, steam and civilization, shall have taken root upon the great Amazon watershed, to see canals and channels which, if nature have not completed, art will, by which the La Plata will be turned upside down, and its mouth placed, for all the practical purposes of commerce, under the equator, where the Amazon discharges itself into the sea.

Castelnau, a French *savant*, who was sent by Louis Philippe, in 1843, to explore the interior of the country, and who went from Rio along this "divide" over to Bolivia, thence to Lima, and then across the Andes and down the Amazon to its mouth, gives much new and valuable information concerning this whole country. He was gone four or five years, and the first part of his travels has just been published.

The principal object of his expedition, he says, "was to study in all its bearings the vast basin of the Amazon, which is destined to play a grand part in the future history of America;" "for," he adds, "the utter neglect of this river-basin by the nations of Europe will one day greatly astonish the political and commercial world."

"An excursion in the northern parts of the province of Matto Grosso (says Castelnau) afforded us an opportunity of determining the position of the sources of the Paraguay, as well as of the Tapajos; and we could contemplate at the same time the arms of the two greatest rivers in the world—the La Plata and the Amazon—as they leaped from the bowels of the earth at our feet, and interlocked one with the other. Again, and as if to render more attractive to men this curious and interesting spot, Nature has placed her mines of diamonds in a region of country where their value is small in comparison with the great advantages which commerce is one day to reap from this marvelous junction of waters."

It was in this region that the intrepid old Sergeant Joao de Souza found a natural tunnel through which the Sumidouro—so called because it runs for about a quarter of a league under a mountain—carries its waters to pay tribute to the Amazon.

Setting out from Cuyabá, in 1746, he descended the river of that name to the Paraguay, which he ascended to the mouth of the Sepotuba. Following this to its sources, he then cut with a hatchet a way through the forest for three leagues, over which he transported his vessels, and embarked them upon the Sumidouro. Following this river till it disappeared under a mountain, he then disembarked, and sent his vessels through. Then going across the mountain to the place where the river comes out again, he had the good luck to find his vessels had passed through without damage.

Re-embarking, he then descended the Arinas and Amazon to Pará, where he was put in prison on account of his discoveries; for it was the policy of Portugal, and has since been that of Brazil, to be as exclusive as Japan with regard to these great basins, and the treasures they contain.

The Republic of Paraguay lies between the parallels of 22 deg. and 28 deg. south latitude. It may be said, therefore, to be *extra*-tropical.

The Brazilian province of Matto Grosso lies between the parallel of 7 deg. south and the Tropic of Capricorn. It is *inter*-tropical. Its productions, therefore, it may be supposed, are different in many respects from those of Paraguay.

This province of Matto Grosso, in its greatest length and breadth, measures 16 deg. of latitude by 16 deg. of longitude.

Passing midway through it, on a zigzag course from east to west, is the great "divide," which separates the waters of the Amazon from the waters

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of the Rio de la Plata. From one end of this ridge to the other, from the Atlantic to the Andes, gold, diamonds, and precious stones are dug from its sides or washed from its streams.

On the northern slopes of it, the Tocantins, the Chingu, the Tapajos, and the Madeira, tributaries to the Amazon, and larger than any of the rivers of Europe, take their rise. Also the Paranahiba, which empties directly into the Atlantic, has its sources among the northern ravines of this auriferous slope.

On its southern declivities the fountain heads of the Parana and Paraguay are found sending forth bright sparkling streams, which, like threads of silver, are seen winding their way through the most luxuriant vegetation and over sands of gold and pebbles interspersed with brilliants, to unite and swell out into the mighty "River of Silver," as the La Plata is called.

Let us therefore leave the country of old Francia for that of Matto Grosso and Brazil.

The traveler leaving the republic, and ascending the Paraguay to the celebrated gold and diamond region of Matto Grosso, finds on either hand, as he goes up, a charming country, diversified with pampas and groves of great beauty and extent.

Turning up the Mendingo, which comes in from the east, and ascending the same for seventy or eighty miles, he comes to the village of Miranda.

The people in the neighborhood are industrious. They raise large herds of cattle, and great numbers of horses. They cultivate, in great abundance, the sugar-cane, Indian corn, pulse, manioc, and cotton. The climate is salubrious and delightful—many of the inhabitants reaching the age of one hundred years.

It was here that Dr. Weddell, the botanist, saw the "nicaya" with its elegant foliage, the fruit of which was described by the Indians to be of an oblong form, and to contain a natural confection of which they are very fond.

Throughout this region they have immense quantities of the beautiful violet and other ornamental woods, which are used for firewood; for, though of great value in cabinet-shops, the people here have no other way, notwithstanding their fine navigable streams, of getting these woods to the seaboard except on the backs of mules.

Returning to the Paraguay, the scene is enlivened by the immense herds that are feeding upon the now evergreen pastures of the plains. The value of these herds consists chiefly in their horns and hides.

The village of Poconé, at the mouth of the Cuyabá, is one of the most flourishing places in the interior of Brazil. Castelnau says (and until otherwise stated, he is my chief authority for what follows) that as many as 8,000 or 10,000 head of cattle are owned by single individuals in that village.

Passing Poconé on the right, and taking the left fork of the river, which retains the name of Paraguay, we reach, at the distance of about 150 miles above it, the frontier Brazilian fort of Villa Maria.

The guns that are mounted in this fort were brought up the Amazon to the Tapajos, thence by that river up the Arinas, thence by portage across the diamond regions to the head-waters of the Cuyabá into the Paraguay, and so up stream to Villa Maria.

On the west there are several fine rivers, which, rising in Bolivia and Brazil, fall into the Paraguay above the mouth of the Cuyabá. Several of these streams interlock with the head-waters of the Madeira, which is to the Amazon what the Missouri is to the Mississippi. I shall have occasion again to speak of these tributaries, of the splendid country watered by them, and of the portage between them.

Villa Maria is in the midst of the great ipecacuanha region of Matto Grosso. In 1814 Francisco Real was sent to explore the diamond region of this province. But it turned out with him as I apprehend it would turn out with the pioneers of commerce now: as rich in diamonds as are the streams and gravel beds of this province, the riches of the vegetable were found greatly to exceed those of the mineral kingdom.

This immense natural plantation includes within one field an area of 3,000 square miles. The crop is perennial, and may be gathered the year round. One expert hand may collect fifteen pounds of this root in a day, which brought in Rio $1 the pound. The work of an ordinary hand is five pounds the day, and the cost of laborers from $3 40 to $4 per month.

Castelnau estimates that from 1830 to

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1837 not less than 800,000 pounds of this drug were exported from this province to Rio. This abundant supply brought down its price. But here is the singular feature of this trade: this produce is taken from the very banks of one of the noblest rivers in the world, and transported by mules for the distance of 1,200 miles to the sea-coast, in spite of Nature's great highway.

The ipecacuanha delights in flat or sandy soil, and is found also in great abundance on the banks of the Vermilho, the Seputuba, and the Cabaçal.

Vanilla is also abundant. Its price, when Castelnau was at Villa Maria, was sixty cents the pound.

But I intended to follow this intelligent traveler up into the diamond country, and with him to visit the "divide" between the waters of the Paraguay and Tapajos.

Ascending the Cuyabá, which is the principal Brazilian tributary of the Paraguay, about 150 miles from its mouth, you come to the flourishing city of Cuyabá. the capital of the province of Matto Grosso. It has a population of about 7,000. It carries on a brisk commerce with Rio by caravans numbering from 200 to 300 mules each. This commerce consists of hides, jaguar and deer skins, gold-dust, diamonds, ipecacuanha, and the like. The freight to Rio is about $15 the 100 pounds.

Here, perhaps, among all the wonderful things that are found in these great river-basins of South America, is the most wonderful of them all—a city, the capital of a province larger than all of the "Old thirteen States" of this confederacy put together, and occupying on the banks of the La Plata very nearly the relative position which St. Louis occupies on the banks of the Mississippi, carrying on its commerce, not by steam and water, but by the mule-load, and over such a distance from the sea-coast, that the time occupied by each caravan in going and returning is from ten to twelve months.

That this state of things should, in the middle of the 19th century, be found to exist in the middle of South America, upon one of the finest of steamboat water-courses in the world, whose navigable tributaries are owned by no less than five separate and independent nations, and which the "policy of commerce" has not yet demanded to be thrown wide open to navigation and commerce, will, in after times, be regarded as more wonderful than any other reality of this wonderful region.

Nay, Brazil has, within a stone's throw of this very capital, and by easy portage, the navigable waters of her own Amazon; and yet so fearful has she been that the steamboat on those waters would reveal to the world the exceeding great riches of this province, that we have here re-enacted under our own eyes a worse than Japanese policy; for it excludes from settlement and cultivation, from commerce and civilization, the finest country in the world. The Atlantic slopes of South America form a country which is larger than the continent of Europe, in which there is an everlasting harvest of the choicest fruits of the earth. It is, therefore, capable of sustaining a population larger than that by which Europe is inhabited.

Cuyabá is in the midst of the gold region of this splendid country. The metal is found in veins, among the pebbles at the bottom of the brooks, and in fine grains in the soil. After every rain the servants and children may be seen gathering it from the washings of the streets in Cuyabá.

They get in this city a drug from the Amazon called *guarana*, of which the consumption is enormous, and to which medicinal virtues the most astonishing are ascribed.

On the head-waters of the Cuyabá is the celebrated diamond district of Brazil; and though in this day of sober realities it cannot be said that the city of Diamantino, the principal village of the district, has its streets paved with diamonds, yet these jewels are found there mixed with the earth, like gold in the "diggings" of California.

Just before Castelnau was there, a man planting a post to which to tie his mule found a diamond of nine carats. The children here wash the earth in the streets for gold, and diamonds are sometimes found in the crops of fowls.

This stone is found in the bottom of the streams; and the most celebrated for it are the Ouro, the Diamantino, and the Santa Anna, in their whole length; the Arinas, the San Franciscos, of which there are three; and on the Paraguay itself for a considerable distance down the main stream.

The Sumidouro, which is on the Ama-

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zonian side of this ridge, is said also to be exceedingly rich in diamonds.

A Spaniard, one Don Simon, with his slaves, washing on the Santa Anna, during the dry season *only*, got in four years 7,000 carats of diamonds.

Castelnau estimates the whole yield of diamonds from Brazil to the end of 1849 at near $80,000,000.

It is the mineral wealth of this watershed between the La Plata and the Amazon, operating with its gold and its diamonds upon the cupidity of her councilors, that has been the curse of Brazil.

At first the diamonds belonged to the crown, and no person was allowed to visit the diamond district unless under the strictest surveillance. Military posts were established throughout the whole region to prevent people from gathering its mineral wealth.

Suppose the United States had established military posts in California to prevent the people from going there and digging for gold, what would have been the condition of that state now in comparison to what it is? It would have been as the interior of Brazil now is.

The policy of Brazil has been not only to shut out commerce, but to shut up from observation the wonderful resources, capabilities, and capacities of the finest country in the world; and among the immense treasures which lie dormant and undeveloped there, I class the precious stones and metals as among the least of the truly valuable.

There is now in Rio the original of an order issued when Humboldt was traveling in South America, ordering that great man to be made prisoner and sent out of the country, should he once set foot on Brazilian territory.

And it has been but two or three years ago that application was made by this government to that of Brazil for permission to send a steamer up the Amazon to explore it, not for the benefit of the United States alone, but for the good of commerce, science, and the world. Permission was refused. The consequence was, two officers of the navy were ordered to cross over the Andes from Lima, and descend the Amazon as they might. One of these officers (Lieut. Herndon, U. S. N.) has just returned and is now engaged with his report; the other (Lieut. Gibbon) is still on his way down.

Thus, in consequence of this Japanese spirit that still lingers in Brazil, our officers, in pursuit of science and of knowledge for the benefit of the human family, were, by this dog-in-the-manger policy, compelled to undergo all sorts of exposure, and, living on monkeys and sea-cows, to descend that mighty river, from its sources to its mouth, on rafts, in dug-outs, and upon such floating things as they could find. The report of these two officers will no doubt open the eyes of the country to the importance of this region.

On the ridge to the north of Diamantino, Castelnau saw the waters of the La Plata and the Amazon flowing from the same farm:

"We found (says he) one of the very sources of the Amola, (a tributary of the Cuyabá,) which rises in a ravine of the plateau, and flows towards the south; it is N.N.W from the fork of it, which they say is a little more elevated. These two sources unite almost immediately in the valley to form the Amola, which crosses the road of Kebo. The farm of Estivado, where we were, is situated on one of the most interesting points which the continent presents. There, in fact, and at a few steps one from the other, arise the sources of two of the greatest rivers in the world—the Amazon and the La Plata. It may one day be very easy to establish a communication between these gigantic streams, for the master of the house, as he told us himself, had attempted, simply for the purpose of irrigating his garden, to turn the waters of one river into the bed of the other. The source of the River Estivado, the true branch of the Arinas, is found in a hollow in the plateau, whose shed is turned towards the north about 650 feet east of the house of the same name; and 275 feet west of this appears, in a little grove, the source of an affluent of the Tombador, which is known to be one of the tributaries of the Cuyabá.

"The farm of Estivado is therefore on a dividing line of the waters which flow north and those which flow south. The same phenomenon is observed in Maou; in the times of great floods there is a torrent whose waters at a certain point separate in such a manner, that, on the one hand, they flow to the Cuyabá, and, on the other, to the Tapajos.

"All this great plateau is on the dividing line of the waters. The superintendent of Estivado told us that once a canoe had been carried from Cuyabá in the Arinas by means of a portage of only

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four leagues across the Chapola, and the proprietor of Macu had proposed to establish this communication."

Diamantino carries on a direct trade with Para, by the Arinas, the Tapajos, and Amazon. The place of embarkation is ten leagues from the village, and a voyage up and down thence to Para occupies eight months. The Tapajos is said to be sickly.

The foreign merchandise that reaches Diamantino by this route is sold at an advance, on the average, of eight hundred and fifty per cent. on its price in Para, which is some fifty or one hundred per cent. on New-York prices.

Were this trade large, as at present it is not—and without steamboat navigation can never be—Pennsylvania, no doubt, would rejoice in it; for iron in Diamantino and the province of Matto Grosso generally sells at $25 the 100 lbs.—*five hundred and fifty dollars a ton!*—a price which ought surely to satisfy the iron men of any country. Salt sells at $18 the 100 lbs.: flour at $40 per barrel.

Castelnau quotes the Para and Diamantino prices of thirty-four of the principal foreign articles of trade between the two places, and the average advance in Diamantino upon these Para prices is, as I have stated, 850 per cent.

Passing from this benighted country over into Bolivia, Castlenau came to an entirely different sort of people. Industrious and thriving, the Bolivians, as they contemplate their lovely rivers, the Pilcomayo and the Madeira, sigh for the steamboat and the free navigation of the La Plata and the Amazon.

The Pilcomayo takes its rise under the south wall of their beautiful "Silver City," as Chuquisaca is called. The Vermejo, another large Bolivian tributary of the La Plata, has its sources further south. After a course of a thousand miles to the southward and eastward, these streams empty into the Paraguay; and so anxious is Bolivia for the steam navigation of these rivers, that she has, I am told, offered a bonus of $20,000 to the first steamboat that will ascend the Pilcomayo to the head of navigation.

Chuquisaca stands on a spur of a mountain which juts out from the Andes, and constitutes the "divide" between the head-waters of the Pilcomayo and the Madeira. This latter, taking its rise under the north wall of this city, and joining a tributary which comes down from the city of Chochabamba, takes a sweep of some three hundred miles to the southward and eastward; then recovering itself, and swollen by the numerous tributaries received by the way, it turns north towards the Amazon, and flows by Santa Cruz de la Sierra, (the present capital of the republic,) a magnificent sheet of water.

From the two first-named cities, by the windings of the Madeira to the ocean, the distance is upwards of two thousand miles, more than half of which is in Bolivian territory. Well may that republic, therefore, sigh for river steamers and the right of way up and down the Amazon.

The climate of Bolivia is one of the finest tropical climates in the world. Indeed, its climates and productions may be considered to include those of all the habitable portions of the globe.

Here, one seated at the foot of a mountain, and surrounded with the luscious fruits of the tropics, may, casting his eye up towards the snow-capped peak above him, take in at one view the whole range of the vegetable gamut. Beginning with the chirimoya, the pineapple, the orange, and the vanilla, as they cast their fragrance around, he passes through, as he ascends, groves of the olive and the vine, the peach and the pear, until finally, having completed the vegetable notation in the order of production through the torrid and temperate zones, he reaches the frigid, and with its cap of snow he finds the summit crowned with the mosses and the lichens of the polar regions.

About one-half of Bolivia is in the valley of the Amazon; one-fourth in the valley of the La Plata; and the rest, which is not desert or mountain, is in the valley of Lake Titicaca, that inland basin in which the Incas and civilization of Peru had their origin.

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ART. VI.—PROGRESS—THE PAST AND THE PRESENT.

THE chronology of creation is written in immutable characters in the great volume of nature, and the surface of the earth is rich in historical data in connection with the promotion of human progress. The experience of nearly sixty centuries is recorded in these annals of animated action; exhibiting, as it were, a journal of the progressive and retrogressive changes of mind in its efforts to explore the hidden secrets of the universe.

The civilized world of the present day may well boast of the flattering aspect of human improvement and expanding genius, while a retrospective view calls up a host of strange, gloomy, yet interesting images that float upon the waves of the past. The wrecks of ancient grandeur meet our gaze at every turn; the ruins of enlightened periods are found in every land. Look into the dim vista of antiquity, among the dilapidated masses of mural rubbish strewn throughout the once gorgeous East. There are the foot-prints of Desolation, clear and defined. Overstepping the terrene temples of Salsette and Elephanta, he crushes under his tread the magnificent Temple of the Sun at Persepolis; Shushan, Nineveh, Babylon, Baalbec, with all their storied greatness, are almost lost to human ken. The columnar fragments of Palmyra only mark the location of the solitude of ruins, and green stagnant tanks or oasian pools, where the prowling jackal, and Bedouin bandit, slake their parching thirst. Jerusalem, "the city of our God," is trod by the feet of the infidel; the Turk and the Arab pitch their tents on Mount Zion. Where are the ancient emporiums of the eastern commerce, Tyre, Sidon, Tarshish, and Carthage? Heliopolis, and Thebes, with its hundred gates, from each of which a thousand chariots went forth to battle; and where is the oracle of Jupiter Ammon, of the Lybian desert? We still look up to the mouldering battlements of the Acropolis, frowning grimly from the rocky hold upon degenerate Athens. The arcades of the grand Colosseum still stand a gloomy monument of architectural genius at the period of Vespasian's triumphant reign. Instead of eighty thousand gay auditors assembled to witness an exhibition, a solitary recluse or bandit may be observed skulking among its dark recesses; yet, it elucidates the splendor of the times and the taste for public amusement. But what is Rome now, with all her ecclesiastical dignitaries? In the march of progress she lingers in the rear, as if loth to leave the beaten paths of eighteen centuries, bearing all the accumulated decrepitude of age. It would be folly to follow the destroyer's footsteps throughout Europe, where every valley is a witness, and every headland exhibits a ruined trophy of a brighter day.

In referring to these mementoes of prosperity and intelligence, it may be asked, Who were their founders? Who were their denizens? What was their literature?—the elements of their enlightenment? Who were their teachers? Who laid the foundations and raised the unique tumuli of our own land? The tescallis of Anahuac, of Otumba and Cholula—the dilapidated palaces of Oxmutal, of Mitla, Palenque, &c.? They, too, evince in silent veracity the existence of an enlightened era in America. Who will assert that this Continent is not the lost island of Atalanta, of which the elder Pliny vaguely speaks, or that the line of Asiatic commerce did not cross the Isthmus of Chiapa? The late discovery of an extensive city on the Island of Tinian, on the direct route to the Indian Archipelago, is the initiatory development of such a supposition; and similar discoveries on the same line of navigation would give it plausibility.

Following the diurnal course of light to that quarter of the globe where it is supposed the human race commenced its course of improvement, and from the remains of science that was anciently cultivated, as well as the arts that were exercised there, it is concluded to have been the first in which man made any considerable progress in that career. The wisdom of the East was early celebrated in Scripture history; and its productions were in request among the Egyptians at least four hundred years before Moses wrote the Pentateuch. There is reason to infer from the same source that Damascus had a mercantile

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communication with India as early as the days of Abraham, or about four hundred years after the deluge.

Perhaps no country has undergone less change than eastern Asia. What is in India now, was always there; as it was found by the Portuguese, so was it found when Parmenio led the triumphs of Alexander thither. Neither the conquering sword of Alexander, nor the ferocious violence of its Mohommedan masters, nor the power of its European tyrants, have been able to effect any considerable change. Indeed, it may be deemed problematical whether any alteration would be an improvement on a system of laws and ethics that have been tested by the experience of four thousand years—idolatry excepted—Yet, notwithstanding the apparent perfection of this system of laws, having existed from time immemorial, and still tenaciously adhered to by the natives, the last of their conquerors only have been able to procure the means of their analysis by access to their libraries. —Many of their Brahminical tomes claim an almost incredible existence; reaching far beyond the tolerated limits of orthodox chronology. Ridicule and grave denunciation have condemned these records of an inappreciated antiquity, and there is reason to doubt, whether the constructive creeds of modern zealots have not retarded the spread of intelligence and the progress of intellect, by positive assertion, unsustained by Scripture, the evidences of nature, analogy, or the philosophy of the physical indices of the progress of creation. The condemnation of these antique records, that contain much to recommend their perusal, as the mere emanations of a voluptuous fancy or sublime fable, should be sanctioned, if not with doubt, at least with extreme caution. For, how is it, if they are totally unworthy of credit, that the astronomical tables exhibiting an exact delineation of the celestial spheres at the same periods, have been attested and accredited by such eminent astronomers as M. Bailly, of Paris, and Professor Playfair, of Edinburgh? "These tables," say they, "display an accuracy less surprising than the justness and scientific nature of the principles on which they are constructed; that such a conformity to the calculations for those ages could result from nothing, but their authors having copied from nature, and having truly represented the state of the heavens, in the era in which they lived—nearly five thousand years ago. Nor do these calculations descend to the grosser estimations of the Chaldeans and Egyptians." Yet the student of ancient history is referred to the valley of the Nile as the cradle of literature, science, and arts; but Cadmus, the Phenician, introduced the elements of writing to the colonies of Greece.

The researches of the learned in this hitherto sealed magazine of knowledge, have opened for the contemplation of the philosopher, the philanthropist, and statesman, a novel but ripe field of interesting inquiry. Each may here discover a regular system of science in the various ramifications of government and morals, perspicuously displayed to the understanding in the annals of an age that extends far away, back beyond the popular epochs of our day. When Egypt was yet unknown; long before Mizraim had left the plains of Shinar to establish the empire of the Nile; when all other nations slumbered in savage sloth, excited only by the barbarous passions of rapacious hostility; led on by the tide of commercial enterprise, the minister of our artificial wants and necessaries, and the most successful missionary of learning—literature, intuitively flowed in the same channel, westward, through the metropolitan marts of Persia, Assyria, Chaldea, and Phenicia, to Egypt and Carthage. Its African progress was arrested by the arid sands of Lybia and the great Saharah; while, on the North, after passing Damascus, it seems to have lost its impetus at the base of Mount Taurus. But in the process of time a brilliant flame burst spontaneously from the hills of Palestine, illuminating not Syria alone, but the whole of western Asia basked in the effulgence of wisdom, emanating from the mind and pen of Solomon, King of Israel; a prince no less distinguished for his literary fame, than for the splendor of his commercial enterprise. He laid the foundations of Tadmor in the Desert; raised its pillared palaces, colonnades and aqueducts, as a central trading rendezvous for the merchants of Elam and Ind, from the east, and the caravans of Damascus, from the west. Under the auspices of a royal co-partnership—Hiram and Solomon—

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navigation extended from the seas of Cathay* to the channels of Albion, and Jerusalem and Tyre revelled in the wealth of distant nations. The combination of contemporary literature, commerce, science and arts, impelled the advance of general improvement; peace was secured; and prosperity, refinement and happiness prevailed throughout the sphere of its influence.

Much has been said and written concerning the sapient King of Israel, his magnificent temples and gorgeous palaces. The former were overlaid with gold, and ornamented with the most lustrous gems, dazzling the eyes while the imagination was bewildered, and the mind, as it were, transported into the region of fiction and enchantment. By the influence of superior policy his power accumulated, and his sceptre swayed over all the neighboring nations; and the sovereigns at a distance sought his friendship and alliance. His fame had spread to the uttermost parts of the earth; the philosophy and learning of the age were concentrated at his court, and Jerusalem became the metropolis of science.

The brilliancy of his genius and of his power was not displayed more in the richness of his architectural designs, the superlative beauty and magnitude of his buildings, or his commercial adventures, than in the number and pomp of his military divisions. One million and a half of men composed his infantry; twelve thousand horsemen, with one thousand four hundred chariots—the exquisite workmanship of Assyria and Egypt. He procured the fiery barbs of Africa for his cavalry, and the swiftest coursers of Arabia were harnessed to his chariots. His charioteers were helmed in brass, and their armor was of burnished steel. His cavalry were clothed in purple, and the housings of their saddles were embroidered with gold, while the precious dust of Ophir glistened in the hair of his guards. The reins of their bridles were chains of brass; the headstalls and frontlets were plates of silver. Their swords were of Damascus, and the armories of Lebanon were stored with shields of gold and targets of silver. His garrisons were built of marble, and the stalls for the horses were made of brass.† And when the monarch willed to mount his chariot and review his troops,

> "High, on silver wheels,
> The iv'ry car in azure sapphires shone—
> The cerulean beryl and the jasper, green,
> The emerald, the ruby's glowing blush,
> The flaming topaz, with its golden beam,
> The pearl, th' impurpled amethyst, and all
> The various gems that India's mines afford
> To deck the pomp of kings. In burnished gold
> A sculptured eagle from behind displayed
> His stately neck, and o'er the royal head
> Stretched out his dazzling wings. Eight generous steeds,
> Caparisoned in gold, were harnessed to the car.
> In obedient pride they hear their lord—
> Exulting, high in air they toss their heads—
> On their glittering chests their silver manes disport:
> The king commands—himself the charioteer."

But it is to the institutions of Greece, the beacon-light of antiquity, to which the modern world is mainly indebted for all it knows of ancient literature. —They were admirably adapted for the early development of the intellectual and physical powers of its citizens. With an inherent reverence for the sacred mysteries of Eleusis, embracing the doctrines of religion, the unity of God, the immortality of the soul, future rewards and punishments—virtue was an essential qualification for public honors. The Olympic, Isthmean, Pythean, and Nemean games, were exhilirating incentives to merit; not alone for the athletic, but the literary competitors for fame were there. Herodotus, the father of profane history, read his compositions at the celebration of the Olympic games. It was thus the Greek became addicted to controversial declamation on speculative theories, which he had the address to controvert or defend with an excess of dignified refinement. "To define with accuracy, to distinguish with acuteness, to reason with subtilty while attempting to analyze those operations of the mind which the faculties of man were not formed to comprehend," were his specious characteristics.

Urged on by the desire of surpassing excellence, the Grecian mind soared far above the envious flights of its predecessors. The delicacy of taste, richness, beauty, glowing almost into animated life, was only found in the inimitable statuary of her studios, while her architectural proportions have deservedly been admired in every age for chasteness of outline and ornamental

* China, at this time.

† Bible and Josephus.

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design. Literature, sculpture and painting were sedulously cultivated, and were deemed exclusively the permanent characteristics of Greece, until her sovereignty was suppressed by the Roman power, and the torch of Grecian genius blazed from the altars of Italy. Spreading with the success of the Cæsars, it swept round the southern foot of the Alpine barrier into the ultra-montane regions of the benighted west of Europe, illuminating the progress of the conqueror.

With the decline and fall of the Roman Empire, the advance of man's intellectuality was arrested, and for a thousand years the gloom of ignorance brooded over the tomb of science, of literature, and arts. All had passed away, as it were, into the vortex of oblivion. All that ennobles the mind, the mighty power of intelligence, was obliterated—the world was a waste of depravity and superstition, until that brilliant spark gleamed upon the genius of Guttenburg. The effulgence of a new era burst from the literary press with tenfold vigor. Accelerated alone by its intrinsic merit, its course was onward, under the happy coincidental auspices of the Reformation.

How often is the public ear assailed with the broad assertion, that the intelligence of the present period far surpasses that of every previous age. Here we should pause! while we may view, with laudatory complacence, yes, even with some degree of pride and exultation, the brilliant march of intellectual improvement, and reflect that, besides what we see among the devastated ruins of the past, and the exhumations of Herculaneum, Pompeii and Nineveh, we are yet in the novitiate of progress, considering that we possess the superior advantages of past experience. We should not forget that there has been a Cadmus, a Solomon, a Homer, an Herodotus, a Socrates, an Archimedes, a Praxiteles, an Apelles, a Demosthenes, a Cæsar and a Cicero—a Bacon, a Locke, a Descartes and a Newton; that the splendid career of to-day is predicated on the incidental progress of forty centuries, by legacies of wisdom, discoveries, and inventions of former times, which we have inherited, and continue to appreciate and improve, seldom accrediting the distant periods from which they emanated. Thus have they prepared the way, furnishing the rudiments of the mechanical elements, on which are formed the fiery vehicles on which we ride triumphantly away from the rude and dusky purlieus of antiquity.

Mind has now mounted the CAR of PROGRESS—seizing the reins of science and of art—bounding forward unrestrained, like the bright chariot of the sun, into the untrodden fields of knowledge, and like that glorious luminary, enlightening the world in its course; invigorating the germs of intellect and genius, until they burst forth into fructifying maturity. Disengaged from the gross hallucinations of past ages, imposed by priests and princes, it rises from the slime of ignorance and depression on freedom's pinions, independent alike of antiquated dogmas, rude philosophy, the restraint of intolerance, and senseless superstition. By the buoyancy of its own enthusiasm, it soars in an atmosphere uncontaminated by a false philanthropy. Time and space are conducted by its operations, and the world is embraced at a glance. It commands the elements, and they obey it; the silent mandate of a tyrant's wrath, or the sweet accents of a lover's vow, fly on electric wings, and strike their destination of a thousand miles in an instant of time. The globe is a sphere too circumscribed for its expansive research; the universe alone can limit its aspirations. No part of it, however, is too remote for the investigation of the mind, too sublime for its contemplation, or too insignificant for its reflective consideration. By the influence of a candid pulpit and enlightened press, benevolent institutions and the dignified administration of a liberal government, it will diffuse the genuine aspirations of the soul—of nature—of justice—of truth—yes, and of a Deity—until the final link of the despot's chain is dissolved by the intensity of its power.

Even now, the empires of oppression quake, and the ebullition of the volcanic base on which they rest is only suppressed by the arms of a military force; yet another is rising into being on the very crater of revolution, and it may be, with the germ of destruction in its bosom. It is but a few years ago that thrones tumbled their occupants, leaving the sceptre and the diadem, the pomp of regal sway, the insignia of royal grandeur, with all

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that makes a paltry man the king, was hurled to the dust for a season. Notwithstanding the restrictions of a suppositious benevolence imposed upon the rude masses of mankind, genius has broken through the barriers of prescribed edicts, limiting the action of the mind to conventional theories; opposed the novelties of modern invention or scientific discoveries as innovations, conflicting with the established and tacitly sanctioned principles of ages. Giotta invented, or at least improved, the mariner's compass; and the temerity of Columbus practically demonstrated the spherical form of the earth by the discovery of America. The power of vision was extended by the discovery of Galileo. The telescope is the key that unlocks the obstructing barriers of sight in the regions of space, opening the siderial universe for inspection and study. But the final blow against the influence of the restrictive decrees of oppression was given by the invention of the printing types. The impetus of intellect was restored by the influence of the press; men dared to look abroad, and their intellectual powers were enabled to roam at large in the realms of nature, exploring the land and sea, and scanning the celestial regions of the spheres.

The application of magnetic polarity to navigation, the discovery of America, and the invention of printing, have affected the aspect and destiny of the moral, commercial, and political world more than all the philosophy of sages, the ethics of philanthropists, the swords of conquerors, the decrees of emperors, ecclesiastical bulls, or the tortures of inquisitorial tribunals. This concatenation of discoveries was essential to man's successful career of improvement. Without one of these his progress would have been checked; and what, it may be asked, would be the state of the world now, deprived of the press, the magnet, or America? The magnet, as the key to ocean navigation, opened the portals of a world hitherto locked in the embrace of its own exclusiveness. The announcement of the actual existence of another continent, of easy access, astonished the consecrated guardians of wisdom no less than it did their more ignorant devotees. By the aid of the printing press and types, the literary tomes of knowledge that had been shut up for ages in the dark archive-dungeons of monastic seclusion, were recognized and brought to light, which, under the same régime of neglect, must have been lost to the world for ever. The crypts of ancient lore were unbarred; mouldy parchments unfurled; rare manuscripts, isolated scrolls, valuable books of sacred and profane history, arts and sciences, were put to the press, and struck off at a price that enabled the poor as well as the rich to enjoy

"The feast of reason and the flow of soul."

Thus, the splendor of an enlightened epoch commenced, dissipating the gloom in which the human mind had been shrouded for centuries; opening a vista of superlative grandeur to the mental vision of those who were qualified to appreciate the prospect and future destiny of the world—extending its benign radiance to the farthest habitations of civilized life, in the ratio of time's progression, to cease only when the last particle of sand shall have passed the gorge of his emblematic glass, and has dropped into the inexterminable vortex of eternity.

If our fathers stood aghast, amazed, and bewildered, at the discovery and existence of another vast continent, besides that on which they lived, we, the denizens of later days, are equally astonished that it should have remained a *terra incognita*, until advertised by Columbus and his contemporary navigators in the western world—a continent of vast dimensions—extending from one frozen zone almost to the other—exhibiting all the physical characteristics of the eastern hemisphere, where the splendor of a magnificent sublimity and grandeur prevails throughout its whole extent. From the towering glaciers of the Arctic highlands to the bold, rock-bound promontory of Terra del Fuego, a rugged mountain range, emerging from the Northern Sea, extends its vertebraic line along nine thousand miles of continent, under the various cognomens of Rocky Mountains, Sierra Madre, Cordilleras, and Andes, until they sink abruptly into the Southern Ocean.

From their dark, cavernous ravines, great rivers take their rise, or rather fall, plunging over precipices, headlong dashing and wheeling the fleecy foam around on the wild-whirling eddies, until they reach the smooth, placid channels of the lower valleys and the plains,

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meandering along the deep-channeled arteries of the world, fertilizing the soil, meliorating the aridity of the atmosphere, and refreshing vegetation; while a hundred tributaries, oozing from the spurs or ribs of the great spinal ridge of America, augments the power and volume of the receptive currents, until they reach the great oceanic reservoir, from which they exhibit numerous channels for internal commerce, stretching away up, up, to the region of the icy peaks, and to the snow-capped summits from whence their waters sprung. What is the lauded magnitude of the aquatic trading ducts of Europe in comparison with those of America? The noble and romantic Rhine, the classic Thames, the Rhone, the Danube and the Po, would scarcely fill the bed of our own Missouri, the tributary of a third-class river on the Western Continent.

While we look with admiration on the magnitude of these continuous tides, rushing in a thousand channels from the fountains of the Andes, their estuaries widening as they approach the equatorial embrace of the Amazonian sea, flowing toward the ocean with a breadth of one hundred and eighty miles, and another of eighty, may we not exult in the aquatic grandeur, extent and magnificence of our Northern Lakes? Stretching away far into the interior of the broadest part of our continent, are seas fit for fleets of merchantmen to traverse, and on which the marine squadrons of warlike nations may yet battle for supremacy.

These, all these, are the work of the same grand Architect who laid the foundations of the eastern wing of the world—a part of the embodiment of creation. Their existence is coeval; but now their facilities for human progress are vastly at variance. That is enfeebled, superannuated, exhausted, and worn out by age, by an avaricious selfishness of the few to oppress the masses of a superabundant population. By the depressing policy of its religious and political institutions it must decay, and is now crumbling into ruin, while the wave of human progress is still "Westward, ho!" This continent seems, at the present time, the accredited home of an invincible progress in all things that tend to the reformation of the human family. It seems to have been reserved for the particular aggrandizement of a race that can appreciate and improve the unparalleled natural advantages of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce; for it abounds in all that constitutes the superiority of other lands, to promote the happiness, intelligence, and prosperity of an independent people—rivers admirably adapted to navigation, on which to convey the surplus products of fertile localities to those of other climes, to irrigate a soil favorable to every production that is necessary to sustain life or minister to the natural and artificial comforts and wants of man; the recipient of the oppressed; appreciating the intellectual and physical progress of the age. Extending its marine ramifications to every quarter of the globe, the (late strange) ships of the new world are seen on every sea.

What a retrospective view—what a scene for intelligent reflection! A continent abounding in all things that nature has to bestow for the sustenance and enjoyment of transitory existence; inexhaustible mineral wealth; a soil unsurpassed in exuberant fertility; climates possessing every grade of temperature; —the equatorial regions graduated from the scorching heat of the tropical seacoast to the more moderate temperature of the salubrious zones, at an elevation of from six to nine thousand feet above the level of the ocean, where Cortez and Pizarro found the densely populated empires of Montezuma and the Incas in a state of civilization but little inferior, in many respects, to their conquerors; thence rising from the peopled plateaus to the frozen pinnacles of a frigid region under the ecliptic.

Induced by the allurements of wealth, the auriferous regions of Mexico and Peru swarmed with emigrants from Spain. Here, they basked in the sunshine of affluence, and the treasury of Hispaniola was supplied by the revenue of transatlantic subjects. They, however, enjoyed the balmy influences of an atmosphere of a superior world with less restraint. Combined with the luxuriant productions of the soil, tropical fruits and cereal varieties, a delightful clime, and the natives subordinated to abject slavery; with the munificence of imperial patronage governments were established, and the vice-royal courts of Anahuac and Lima exhibited a splendor but little inferior to the Escurial, or the Alhambra of the Moors. Such was the lavish extravagance of these sub-governments,

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based upon the inexhaustible profusion of the precious metals, that the magnificence of the western world became a proverb. Old Spain, in the plenitude of its exchequer and diplomatic success, reveled in a glorious triumph over Francis I., and the arms of Castile and Arragon were then deemed invincible. Literature flourished, commerce extended, the arts were encouraged, and the haughty demeanor, the pride and pomp of the Hidalgos, ultimately eclipsed the progress of intellectuality. An effeminate indolence succeeded the excesses of intoxicated power, and the nobleness of Castilian chivalry, and a miserable policy, have sunk the Spanish power to that of imbecility.

But far away to the north, the silent strategy of the stealthy Gaul trod the shores of Newfoundland and the banks of the St. Lawrence, paddling his batteau westward on the great lakes, and planting his standard as he progressed. Descending the Ohio, exploring the Missouri, and following the current of the Father of Waters, he reached the Gulf of Mexico, impinging the limits of New-Spain, and circumvallating the territories of another hereditary enemy in the old world—the colonies of England—whose career of progress it is designed to briefly sketch.

In the year 1607, under every species of disappointment and discouragement, the English colonies commenced the permanent settlement on the banks of James' River. Thirteen years subsequent to the settlement of Virginia, a handful of exiled fugitives, fleeing from the impaired privileges of religious freedom, sought an asylum on the inhospitable shores of Massachusetts. Amid the gloom of the winter solstice in a northern clime, these "Pilgrim Fathers" landed under the favorable auspices of no patronizing power but that of Providence, in whom alone they put their trust. They struggled long for an existence against the vicissitudes incident to the inclemency of the seasons—starvation—and the hostile aggressions of implacable savages, as relentless in their ferocity as they were sanguinary, continually staring them in the face.

With the predetermination of success stamped upon their character, every obstacle to their progress was removed, every obstruction surmounted, until the constancy of an enthusiastic perseverance has placed them in the foremost rank of nations. A simultaneous development of the elements of progress was evinced in their courage and apparent temerity, in daring to be free from the antiquated trammels of European power, by shaking off the yoke of foreign oppression. The influence of intellect progressed, while that of brutal force was abrogated by the potency of rational policy, based upon the public will. The struggle for supremacy and freedom was long, and severely arduous; victory poised the laurel wreath of triumph in doubtful hesitation, until, soaring above the plains of Yorktown, she dropped the diadem of liberty, and young America was free.

The emancipated youth, reared in the forest wilds—was a semi-savage, it was thought! Rude were his thoughts, his manners and his works; but that rudeness was instilled by the supposition of his monitorial teaching that he must recognize a power superior to himself. The idea of British omnipotence was urged so closely home to his consciousness, by the fearful energy and play of its power, that he, unaided by science and art, was depressed by established formulas—the surging sea hemming him in, forbidding him commerce and connection with others of his race. But looking forward on the stream of progress, the temple of fame, fortune, and felicity, loomed in the rugged vista of the future. His undeveloped genius rankled in its recess of the brain, as on the development it sprung like a young eagle on the stage of action, grasping in his talons the electric bolts of Jupiter, and the emblematic olive branch of peace and commerce. Then he took his flight, his eye fixed upon heaven, while he skimmed the ocean wave. The howl of the tempest, the lightning's flash, the crash and roar of thunder, the piercing frosts of the frigid zone, or the fervid heat of equatorial regions, do not impede his progress—it is onward still—striking out into a new sphere of existence, discarding all the ancient forms and formulas that contract the powers of mind, for the grand and true conceptions that elevate the human powers, and propagate the principles of political equality; tracing the retarding inferences of these forms, where they linger among mankind, in order to appreciate, by contrast, the more refined

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and elegant structures of the present age.

The development of modern science, and its adaptation to the various arts and professions of the times, may be accredited to the Anglo-Saxon race. Great Britain claims the initiative, and the United States, as if by intuition, competes with the parent state, with persevering ardor and successful emulation, in the race of scientific application and practical demonstration of philosophic principles to the requirements of agriculture, mechanism, manufactures and commerce. With an imperial domain, much of which is unexplored, its vast resources almost dormant, its mineral treasures unknown, the variety of its agricultural products limited, its commerce in incipiency, its manufactures but few, its institutions of learning, science, the fine arts, as yet in a state of infancy —the genius of Young America has evinced a precocity of native acumen and talent far surpassing the ordinary progress of juvenility—displaying a maturity of mental and physical advancement that astonishes, while it commands, the respect of the most powerful nations. Inferior to no nation in the elements of local felicity, and the peaceful aggrandizement of her character—she is second to none in the practical demonstration of progressive improvements.

One hundred years ago the colonies that formed the bases of these states only contained about one million of white inhabitants, which number now a population of twenty-five millions. Then they were without a foreign trade—now, the white wings of commerce are spread to every breeze, urging on with lightning speed their laden argosies to every clime, to every quarter of the globe. Thousands of their vessels—as aquatic hunters—are beating up the fin-winged quarry of the great deep in every ocean. A thousand darkening vapors, of fiery creations, mark the trackless way of as many ships impelled by steam. These, though now the commercial transports of peaceful trade, are so constructed as to assume the hostile aspect of belligerents in the event of war. The same motive power that urges on this mercantile marine through the vasty deep, is likewise applied to every species of handicraft or trade. It drives the saw, the plane, the lathe, the forge, the needle, the mill, the press, and those lengthy rail-road trains that traverse this and other lands. These are the sequences of modern progress—the knowledge of investigating science, and its multifarious appliances in new discoveries and inventions in the laboratory, the workshop, and the kitchen.

This is certainly a wonderful age! The ancients subdued the animated powers of the wilderness to their will; to drag the chariot and to course the arid desert, the camel, horse and tardy ass performed all the labor of mercantile transportation, and the huge elephant was called in requisition for the more herculean labors of war and civil life, while modern intellect directs the fierce elements of fire, of water, and of air, to do their bidding. It is an age of iron, yet an age of gold, of bronze and brass—an epoch of metallic grandeur, unrivaled by the gorgeous fancy of the eastern fabled genii. Crystal palaces and iron mansions; long lines of iron ways; iron bridges span our rivers, and iron ships, of large dimensions, navigate the ocean. It would, however, be an endless list that embraced all its appliances, were it possible to call up the embodied wisdom of antiquity from the dark profundity of the past, and show them modern progress on the real road to science, as it has emerged from the ignorance of the dark ages, or even from that of the last century.

Show them a lengthened train of twice a hundred loaded wains, gliding smoothly on the iron trail with the velocity of an eagle's flight—dragged on like some long, slim, snaky monster by its locomotive heads, with eyes of burning fire snorting forth their heated respirations, and at every evolutionary pulsation discharging the refuse remnants of their motive power. Show them a vessel propelled through the ocean with a celerity of fifteen or twenty miles an hour without the aid of sails, or wind, or steam;—another force impels the aquatic palace—simply heated air is the coercive calorician-power. Show them cities and their thousand streets, stores, public edifices, and private dwellings, at midnight lighted with the brilliancy of noonday by an invisible fluid that is weighed and measured with the same precision as oil, wax and tallow. Show them the miniature of a fine lady—a dashing belle—with all her gaudy finery, produced with the most accurate

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minuteness, without a painter or a pencil, except the pencils of the solar rays, merely by exposing the subject to the refractive condensation of the rays of light, through the medium of the camera obscura—imprisoning the reflection on a silvered plate of copper by chemical and galvanic fitters.

We almost hear them exclaim, as they shrink from the picture, "Hold! let us return to the darkness of the past, and be again shut up from the modern world of witchcraft, magic and enchantment!" Detain them for a few minutes, and desire them to take a peep through Rosse's or Craig's telescopes, while they take a sweep across the firmament. They find the haze of distance dissolved; the barriers to mortal vision vanished; the veil of the universe withdrawn; the splendor and magnificence of celestial scenery, with all its grandeur, displayed to human understanding at a glance; the siderial fields of space passing, like a panorama of suns and worlds, with their satellites and rings, brilliant orbs, and opaque planets, on the majestic march of time. We imagine a spirit of uneasiness and a desire to quit this lower sphere, and ascend to planets that they recognize as their local habitations in the spirit world, on the acromatic field. They may be persuaded to stay, and look upon the operation of the electric post. A London correspondent demands from Paris, Berlin or Vienna, the character of the Bourse, the rise or fall of stocks, prices of exchange, &c., and while gazing on the operator's motions, he reads the instantaneous response. At ten o'clock the New-Orleans broker receives a bulletin of the packet just ten days from England to New-York, in ten minutes after her arrival. Show them twenty thousand mammoth sheets of news thrown off from the press in sixty minutes. Show them yonder hill obstructing the progress of the grading laborers of a new rail-road; the rock-bound base is charged already, and ignited by the merest movement of a tiny wire, connected with alternate layers of zinc and copper plates submerged in acid; a vast explosive sound bursts upon their ears, and the mountain rocks are flying in mid-air. Present a similar explosion in the depths of Hell Gate, and the heaving surge gives way, and the sub-marine obstructions are riven from their foundations, shooting upward to the zenith with volcanic force into the aërial space. These are more than enough for them, yet we look forward to more wonderful occurrences.

What is the cause of the unparalleled progress of the last fifty years?—Freedom, and its concomitant institutions, education, commerce, industry and enterprise. The bright prospects of the future seem to expand over the region of the Southwestern states; the lustre of a glorious halo already surrounds their path of progress, if they are only true to themselves. Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana are already on the track of improvement. But the young giant of the South has not yet decided to fall into the ranks of self-aggrandizement, for which nature has designed this great state. The people of Texas are evidently inclined to harmonize with the contemporary movements of this progressive age. A union of sentiment is all that is wanting to form, accelerate, and consummate the grandest conception of the times—a rail-road from the Pacific to the Atlantic, connecting these two great oceans by an iron link, lying across the continent of North America, and forming a line of uninterrupted communication between Asia, the United States and Europe, which, from the physical construction of the country, is destined by nature to pass through Texas.

The fabrics of every country, the productions of every clime, will be transported upon it. Merchants of all nations will be its subsidiaries. The trade of the world will concentrate at two points on this continent. The terminus of this road on the Pacific will become the great mart of the East. There will be offered for sale or transportation her rich manufactures, her gums, her drugs, her tropical fruits, her gems. At some point on the Gulf of Mexico, where the best harbor may be found, will be the commercial emporium of European goods intended for the consumption of the East. The future Rothschilds, Barings and Astors, will congregate at these points, as the immediate localities from which the other markets of the world can be scanned and controlled. Capital will be amassed and wielded in sums beyond the pale of all former antecedents. Mercantile operations will assume gigantic forms; and the adventures will exceed the wildest dreams of by-gone

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days of speculation. The financial kings of to-day will dwindle into insignificance before the imperial dynasties that will rise up, as it were, to-morrow. The pen, aided by fancy, might even fall short in the attempt to delineate the prosperity, the wealth, the refinement—in fact, the abundance of all the elements of greatness and happiness clustering around a future like this.

ART. VII.—COMMERCIAL PROGRESS OF BALTIMORE.

[We continue to present statistical returns showing the growth of the great American cities. We are indebted to the annual statement of the Baltimore *Prices Current* and *Baltimore American* for the facts we now give.]

A REVIEW of the business operations of Baltimore for the year just elapsed, although it may not afford any very striking feature with regard to actual increase, will show a regular and healthy condition of things, with an abundant money market, and an absence of speculation generally; and there is to be observed every element of future growth and prosperity, with the promise that so soon as our carrying facilities are perfected, an extent of inland as well as foreign trade, equal to the desires of the most zealously ambitious, must be realized. With regard to the progress made toward enlarging and facilitating our trading operations, it is a source of unfeigned pleasure to know that within the past twelve months a number of most important objects, which only require time to carry out and develop with entire success, have been commenced under very auspicious circumstances. In the train of these we think we can see many other objects of nearly equal moment, as affecting the future of our city, taken up and as ably and energetically managed. Since we last presented an annual statement of our trade and commerce, appropriations have been made by Congress and by our City Council for the improvement of our harbor and ship channel. This is an all-desirable object, for which our Board of Trade had been assiduously laboring, and we are in hopes that the general government will follow up its acknowledgment of the propriety of our petition by a further appropriation, and one more commensurate with the character of the object. In the mean time, it is hoped our State Legislature will imitate the example of our City Council by making an appropriation towards improving the Patapsco beyond the city limits.

Our steam connection with the South may now be looked upon as completely established—the Palmetto, sailing to Charleston, is to have a consort of 1,300 tons, the largest steamer ever built at Baltimore—she is building at the yard of Mr. Robb, and her construction has already reached an advanced stage. Earnest appeals are being made daily to our merchants and the merchants of Savannah to establish a line of steamers between Baltimore and that port; and of late the subject has come so palpably before them, that we cannot but indulge the hope that we may, in a few months, put afloat two more steamers to follow in the wake of our pioneer line to the South.

Much has been said within the year upon the subject of direct trade with Europe. However zealous we may be in our efforts to place Baltimore upon such a footing as will render it unnecessary for southern merchants to go to the North for their purchases, the truth cannot be disguised that our water facilities are such as to preclude the possibility of establishing Baltimore as the importing point for the present. What we want most *now* is aid in perfecting our water facilities, so that vessels of even present average tonnage may arrive and depart *ad libitum*. Let us renew and redouble our efforts for the improvement of our harbor and river: when we are ready the South will take us by the hand.

The Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road is completed to Wheeling! Who but the citizens of Baltimore can fully apprehend the import of those words? Though it be not our vocation to indulge in panegyric, on this occasion, at least, an excuse must be permitted us if we soar somewhat with the bright wings which hope has lent us in the contemplation of that great event. We have reached

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the threshold and the stepping-stone of our true commercial destiny, and there is nothing now can turn us back. The wide and far West has opened her ample arms to receive us, and bids us God-speed in our efforts to secure the prize which nature has so long and patiently held out to us. Who will say that the prize is not already ours? The hope deferred through a protracted series of years is finally resolved into a complete reality, and the most sanguine calculations of those by whom it was first entertained are on the eve of being entirely verified.

COAL—*Cumberland*—This article is rapidly becoming one of the leading features of our trade, having established itself in favor wherever its qualities have been tested. The increased use of steam-power, particularly on the ocean, and the growing preference for cheap bituminous coal for domestic purposes, have caused an extraordinary demand for Cumberland, and our routes of transportation have been taxed to their utmost within the past year in order to meet the wants of the different companies working mines in the Alleghany region. The trade, in the early part of the year, opened under some disadvantages, owing to the failure of the largest company then in operation, the late Maryland Mining Company, and continued depressed until May, when it revived, and has continued since then with great activity. The demand for transportation by the rail-road company has exceeded its ability to provide cars, and at this time the amount brought to this market for shipment and consumption is at the rate of about 300,000 tons per annum, although the business of the Company's year ending 1st October, 1852, did not exceed 206,000 tons. The rail-road company having made preliminary arrangements for the accommodation of the coal trade, the exceedingly active demand now prevailing warrants us in the belief that the receipts of 1853 will reach not less than 500,000 tons.

Receipts of Coal at Baltimore for the past Eight Years, to the 1st of January:

	Cumberland.	Anthracite.
1845	16,000 tons	90,000 tons.
1846	18,393 "	100,000 "
1847	50,259 "	110,000 "
1848	60,289 "	125,000 "
1849	71,699 "	140,000 "
1850	146,645 "	160,000 "
1851	163,855 "	200,000 "
1852	256,000 "	125,000 "

Imports of Coffee at this Port for the last Three Years:

	1852.	1851.	1850.
From Rio de Janeiro	224,082	266,240	150,194
" La Guayra	16,241	21,081	24,040
" Porto Cabello			
" Maracaibo	554	5,873	2,754
" West Indies	8,535	8,114	6,532
" Coastwise	4,280	3,885	3,934
Total	253,692	305,103	187,454

The receipts of cotton at this port for the last three years have been as follows, as near as can be ascertained:

	1852.	1851.	1850.
From New-Orleans	4,734	3,070	4,015
" Mobile	3,369	2,737	1,371
" Apalachicola	1,496	677	1,883
" Savannah	2,995	2,950	2,500
" Charleston	13,000	12,500	10,000
" North Carolina	2,000	2,000	1,500
" Virginia & other places	6,000	5,500	4,500
Total	33,594	29,434	25,769

Imports of Hides for the Year 1852:

From River Plate	34,678
" Rio Grande	14,674
" Rio de Janeiro	8,570
" Porto Cabello	28,188
" West Indies and other foreign ports	10,471
" California	27,342
" Coastwise ports	50,064
Total, 1852	173,987
" 1851	253,794
" 1850	263,095
" 1849	235,742

GUANO.—The imports of Peruvian at Baltimore the past year do not much exceed those of 1851, amounting to about 25,500 tons. This is accounted for by the fact that the agents of the Peruvian government have imported a considerable quantity into Norfolk and Alexandria, for the first time. The demand was active the past season, and prices ruled high, from dealers, on account of the scarcity of the article. The importers' prices remained unchanged at $46 20 per ton during the year.

We embrace this opportunity of correcting a recent statement in the *Boston Journal*, in which the total imports of guano into all the United States, in 1851, are put down at 23,153 tons. The imports of Peruvian guano at Baltimore alone amounted to 25,000 tons, and we are quite certain that at least 10,000 tons were imported into other ports in that year, which would make the total 12,000 tons more than is stated by the *Journal*. The total imports of Peruvian guano into all the United States, during the year 1852, were 79 cargoes, with 41,088 tons (2,240 lbs).

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Imports of Peruvian Guano at Baltimore for the last Four Years:

1849	2,700	tons.
1850	6,800	"
1851	25,000	"
1852	25,500	"

IRON FURNACES OF MARYLAND.—The following table exhibits the names, number, location and capacity of the blast furnaces of the State of Maryland. During the late depression and excessive imports, most of these furnaces have been idle, but prices having greatly improved, they are now about going into blast again:—

Furnaces.	No.	Location.	Capa'y per ann. Tons.
Lonaconing	1	Alleghany co	3,000
Mount Savage	2	"	6,000
Lena	1	"	1,500
Antietam	1	Washington co	2,500
Green Spring	1	"	1,000
Blue Ridge	1	Frederick co	3,000
Catoctin	1	"	1,500
Elba	1	Howard co	1,500
Muir Kirk	1	A. Arundel co	2,000
Curtis' Creek	1	"	2,000
Patuxent	2	"	4,000
Elk Ridge	1	"	2,000
Nashongo	1	Worcester co	1,500
Ashland	2	Baltimore co	7,000
Oregon	1	"	4,000
Gunpowder	1	"	2,500
Harford	1	Harford co	1,500
La Grange	1	"	1,000
Sarah	1	"	1,500
Havre de Grace	2	"	5,000
Principio	1	Cecil co	2,000
Maryland	1	Baltimore city	2,500
Laurel	1	"	2,500
Chesapeake	1	"	2,500
Cedar Point	2	"	5,000
Locust Grove	1	"	2,000
Total	31	Pig iron	70,500

Receipts of Lumber at Baltimore for the past Five Years:

1848	38,132,688	feet.
1849	59,673,039	"
1850	63,000,000	"
1851	60,000,000	"
1852	76,402,129	"

Flour Inspections.

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.
Howard-street	474,619	549,233	533,549	729,532
City Mills	245,753	295,236	324,158	488,096
Susquehanna	16,272	17,057	23,399	51,317
Ohio	—	—	—	6,291
Family	27,874	35,171	34,494	33,929
Rye	8,011	5,480	7,578	6,450
Corn Meal	54,837	45,360	33,145	57,138

WHISKY.—The extent of our trade in this article, although known to be large, cannot be arrived at with anything like accuracy, on account of the imperfect system of inspections which prevails here; taking, however, into account the capacity of the four distilleries which have been in operation throughout the best part of the year, and the receipts by rail-road and coastwise vessels, we are safe in putting down in round numbers the total receipts at 115,000 barrels for 1852. We are unable at present to give anything further than the range of prices of the raw article throughout the year, as reported in the Price Current.

Prices of Raw Whisky, in Barrels, at Baltimore on the 1st and 15th of each Month, 1852:

	Cents.		Cents.	
January	1st	21½@—	15th	21½@22
February	1st	21½@22	15th	23 @23½
March	1st	23½@24	15th	22 @22½
April	1st	21½@22	15th	22 @22½
May	1st	21½@22	15th	21½@22
June	1st	21 @21½	15th	21 @21½
July	1st	21½@22	15th	22½@23
August	1st	22½@23	15th	22½@23
September	1st	25 @—	15th	25 @—
October	1st	25 @—	15th	25 @—
November	1st	25 @—	15th	27½@28
December	1st	28 @28½	15th	25½@26

Importations of Molasses at the Port of Baltimore for the past Thirteen Years:

	West Indies.			Coastwise.		
Years.	Hhds.	Trcs.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Trcs.	Bbls.
1840	5,420	316	157	901	363	5,317
1841	4,256	159	510	678	521	5,964
1842	3,676	155	224	413	475	9,805
1843	2,769	163	15	1,250	309	9,541
1844	5,654	434	520	586	75	4,996
1845	3,620	248	430	785	583	10,150
1846	5,586	542	692	407	201	6,925
1847	7,862	488	165	248	8	2,907
1848	6,608	852	247	721	554	12,703
1849	5,883	499	112	—	251	11,068
1850	6,815	529	294	77	244	14,715
1851	7,638	3,329	308	813	171	7,615
1852	7,027	2,064	80	838	153	14,794

Importations of Sugar at this Port for the last Thirteen Years:

	From New-Orleans.		From West Indies.	
Years.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.
1840	7,433	283	8,007	1,905
1841	4,184	11	8,750	4,006
1842	6,103	264	10,828	1,253
1843	7,642	741	7,483	735
1844	5,172	114	10,885	536
1845	12,602	413	5,161	209
1846	9,845	517	6,541	224
1847	6,013	183	18,240	4,236
1848	10,279	3,268	14,841	2,393
1849	9,851	2,384	12,570	5,654
1850	11,066	3,146	11,454	1,420
1851	7,174	3,432	16,732	2,542
1852	13,153	307	12,619	2,653

Vessels arrived at Baltimore during the year 1851, exclusive of Bay Craft:

1852.	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Sch'rs.	Total.	Total, 1851.
January	4	10	15	36	65	139
February	11	37	30	74	152	144
March	13	20	33	104	170	163
April	13	19	38	105	175	142
May	8	29	30	96	163	144
June	13	31	35	87	166	119
July	11	26	42	78	157	136
August	15	22	41	87	165	151
September	18	28	45	96	187	153
October	11	24	35	113	183	127
November	6	22	31	93	152	120
December	5	24	26	99	154	95
Total 1852,	128	292	401	1,068	1,889	1,633
" 1851,	103	214	346	970	1,633	—

NOTE.—In the arrivals the past year are included the following foreign vessels: Ships—Bremen, 33; British, 5; Swedish, 1. Barks—Bremen, 22, British, 24; Hanoverian, 2; Dutch, 4; Hamburg, 1. Brigs—Bremen, 5; British, 73; Spanish, 2; Hanoverian, 3; Dutch, 1; Swedish, 2; Russian, 3; Hamburg, 2; Danish, 1; Oldenburg, 2; Prussian, 2; French, 1. Schooners—British, 28; Dutch, 1. Total, 218—total foreign vessels, 1851, 148.

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***Tobacco Statement**, showing the Quantity in the several Warehouses on the 1st of January, 1852. the Inspections by each house for the year ending December 31, Deliveries for the same period, and Stock on hand January 1, 1853:*

Tobacco in State Warehouses.	No. 1.	No. 2.	No. 3.	No. 4.	No. 5.	Total.
Stock, January 1, 1852	3,996	3,259	2,708	4,082	3,654	17,699
Inspections of 1852	11,853	10,029	8,396	8,114	9,940	48,332
Total	15,849	13,288	11,104	12,196	13,594	66,031
Deliveries for 1852	13,749	11,577	9,223	9,072	10,651	54,272
Stock, January 1, 1853	2,100	1,711	1,881	3,124	2,943	11,759

The following statement shows the stock in warehouses on the 1st January, 1852, and the quantity of each kind inspected for the year ending December 31.

	Hhds.
Stock in warehouses January 1, 1852	17,699
Inspections from Jan. 1 to Dec. 31, 1852, viz:	
Maryland	29,569
Ohio	17,720
Kentucky	837
Virginia	200
Pennsylvania	6
Total	48,332
To which add, received from District of Columbia, and not inspected	541
	66,572

EXPORTED, 1852.

To Bremen	22,860
" Rotterdam	11,473
" Amsterdam	5,067
" France	7,679
" England	2,847
" Trieste	830
" St. Petersburg	210
" Hamburg	618
" Emden	186
" Africa	158
" West Indies	176
" Other ports	253
" Coastwise ports	2,456
	54,813
Stock in hand January 1, 1853	11,759

MANUFACTURED TOBACCO.—The leading features of the past year's business in this important article have been, much regularity of demand, as compared with the previous year, and a more uniform scale of prices, with little variation. The stock now on hand to go over to the next season is made up chiefly of desirable kinds of fine, good and medium qualities, mostly of the manufacture of last summer and fall, with a small proportion comparatively of common and perishable descriptions. Agents and holders will therefore have it in their power to meet the early trade expected in the coming season, with, perhaps, a better supply than they have been enabled to offer within several years, and present advantages to new buyers, which it is conceded this market, from location alone, enjoys over those eastwardly. Prices are now settled down to a point barely remunerative to manufacturers; the raw material gains additional value as the old crop, now nearly or quite consumed, goes into use, and no likelihood of an abatement during the coming season need be apprehended from the prices now quoted, which are:

	Cents.
Pound lumps of excellent fine quality	from 30 to 40
" No. 1 brands	23 to 28
" medium	12 to 16
" common	8 to 10
Best brands of 5's and 8's lump	17 to 22
Medium " "	14 to 16
Common " "	11 to 13
" 16's, 18's, and 20's lump	8 to 10
Ladies' twist and other spun work	22 to 27

Tobacco Inspections at Baltimore for the last Twelve Years:

Years.	Maryland.	Ohio.	Virginia and other kinds.	Total.
1852	29,569	17,720	1,043	48,332
1851	25,013	16,798	931	42,742
1850	27,085	13,965	783	41,833
1849	30,689	13,664	1,248	45,601
1848	23,491	9,702	703	33,906
1847	34,580	15,219	772	50,571
1846	41,416	29,626	754	71,896
1845	39,538	26,696	1,755	67,989
1844	32,249	15,464	1,244	48,957
1843	29,354	13,465	4,877	47,696
1842	33,759	11,278	1,439	46,476
1841	29,980	7,692	1,479	39,151

Exports of Tobacco from the Port of Baltimore for the last Twelve Years:

Years.	Bremen.	Rotterdam.	Amsterdam.	France.	All other places.	Total.
1852	22,860	11,473	5,067	7,679	7,734	54,813
1851	12,654	9,694	4,154	2,327	5,292	34,124
1850	15,864	7,814	5,973	8,177	6,540	44,368
1849	18,821	13,783	8,725	9,562	1,033	51,924
1848	12,787	7,910	3,103	5,761	131	38,890
1847	22,967	7,819	11,388	7,889	1,895	53,482
1846	24,404	9,498	6,181	8,165	3,037	49,491
1845	26,832	18,171	10,944	7,183	2,880	66,010
1844	17,139	11,864	7,095	7,212	1,594	44,904
1843	16,990	6,525	7,325	7,932	3,822	42,594
1842	17,719	10,874	8,109	4,682	2,379	43 763
1841	16,373	7,918	5,169	3,814	2,519	38,001

Value of Foreign Imports and Exports at the District of Baltimore for the past Thirteen Years:

	Imports.	Exports.
1840	$5,109,274	$5,868,018
1841	6,109,101	4,997,633
1842	4,052,260	4,448,946
1843	3,607,733	4,740,042
1844	4,251,883	4,622,063
1845	3,356,670	6,256,276
1846	4,238,760	6,710,559
1847	4,146,743	9,826,479

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	Imports.	Exports.
1848	5,245,894	7,209,602
1849	5,291,566	8,660,981
1850	6,417,113	8,530,970
1851	7,243,963	6,466,165
1852	——	7,549,766

Statement of American and Foreign Vessels Cleared at the Port of Baltimore for Foreign Countries during the year ending 31st December, 1852:

	American Vessels.			Foreign Vessels.		
	No.	Tons.	Men.	No.	Tons.	Men.
Russia	—	—	—	1	196	8
Dn. W. Ind's	19	2,957	139	2	311	15
Hanse Towns	4	2,075	72	40	18,075	653
Hanover	—	—	—	1	96	6
Holland	10	5,465	173	17	8,433	274
England	29	16,042	469	29	11,780	440
Scotland	—	—	—	1	302	15
Ireland	1	283	13	3	511	26
Gibraltar	2	321	14	—	—	—
Br. W. Indies	99	15,446	720	64	6,724	472
Br. Guiana	13	2,190	99	6	1,143	60
B. N. America	5	1,234	50	45	7,612	377
St. Helena	—	—	—	1	199	10
Australia	2	535	23	—	—	—
France on Atlantic	5	3,750	103	—	—	—
France on Mediterr'n	2	1,189	40	—	—	—
Spain	—	—	—	1	195	13
Cuba	13	3,971	136	—	—	—
Other Spanish W. In.	27	4,075	193	2	176	14
Madeira	4	708	30	1	138	8
Cape de Verds	2	141	12	—	—	—
Trieste	1	493	15	1	450	18
Hayti	1	110	6	—	—	—
Cen. America	2	137	11	—	—	—
N. Granada	13	1,233	80	1	86	8
Venez. Ports	12	1,726	89	—	—	—
Brazilian do.	64	16,842	670	3	532	29
Montevideo	7	1,952	78	3	599	31
Buenos Ayres	2	295	15	1	172	9
Chilian Ports	6	2,680	97	2	418	25
Peruvian do.	1	277	14	2	624	25
W. Coast Af.	6	1,632	68	—	—	—
California	4	1,039	52	—	—	—
Total	356	88,798	3,481	227	58,772	2,536

Exports of Flour from Baltimore, commencing from 1st of January, 1852:

Where to.	Total.	1851.
Great Britain bbls	225,928	71,946
Hanse Towns "	14,464	5,851
Holland "	6,168	1,081
Brazil "	136,590	135,527
Montevideo "	17,519	13,723
Buenos Ayres "		
British N. American Col's "	36,871	28,465
Venezuela "	9,914	7,396
West Indies "	162,497	128,727
Other ports "	11,318	22,247
Total	618,265	415,963

Table of Inspections of Wheat and Rye Flour and Corn Meal for the last Twelve Years:

Years.	Flour. bbls.	Corn Meal bbls.	Corn Meal hf. bbls.	Rye Flour bbls.	Rye Flour hf. b's.
1841	628,974	459	10,736	34	3,831	22
1842	558,282	715	7,772	437	5,436	34
1843	560,431	535	13,359	821	8,401	45
1844	499,501	245	25,054	1,525	9,904	—
1845	576,745	631	23,949	1,450	6,518	24
1846	850,116	1,076	40,942	1,744	5,402	—
1847	959,456	934	105,842	1,298	6,666	49
1848	736,441	333	60,225	1,322	7,520	105
1849	764,519	428	51,772	2,051	8,007	9
1850	896,592	272	42,403	3,369	5,419	22
1851	912,498	620	28,917	2,256	7,654	53
1852	1,307,165	747	52,658	745	6,449	21

IMPORTATIONS.

A Comparative Statement of the Imports at the Port of Baltimore, commencing January, 1851 and 1852:

Articles.	Total, 1852.	Total, 1851.
Bark, Peruvian ceroons	1,207	750
Coffee, Rio bags	224,082	266,240
Laguayra & P. Cabello "	16,241	21,081
Maracaibo "	551	5,873
Other ports "	8,535	8,114
Coastwise "	4,280	3,885
Cocoa bags & qtls	5,963	4,721
Cocoanuts No	M1,316	M739
Cotton, from—		
New-Orleans bales	4,734	3,070
Mobile "	3,369	2,737
Charleston "	13,000	12,500
Savannah "	2,995	2,950
Apalachicola "	1,496	677
Other ports "	8,000	7,500
Copper pigs	—	—
" bars	1,775	2,898
Dye Wood—		
Logwoods tons	83	75
Fustic "	148	7
Fruit—Lemons bxs	4,615	4,411
Oranges "	6,184	15,874
Figs drums	11,208	9,787
" cases	407	355
Raisins casks	499	625
" bxs	35,982	29,065
Guano tons	22,651	27,239
Hides—from		
Buenos Ayres No.	34,678	80,448
Montevideo "		
Rio Grande No	14,674	54,693
California "	27,342	16,473
Porto Cabello "	28,188	16,886
Rio de Janeiro "	8,570	—
Other foreign ports "	10,471	13,268
Coastwise "	50,064	79,026
Horns "	M38	M626
Indigo ceroons	220	110
Iron bars	158,797	152,254
Pig tons	4,471	1,994
Bundles	40,189	50,282
Rail-road tons	910	1,333
" bars	19,094	22,123
Molasses—from		
Foreign ports hhds	7,027	7,638
" trcs	2,064	2,329
" bbls	80	308
Coastwise hhds	388	813
" trcs	153	177
" bbls	14,794	7,915
Rice casks	4,963	5,397
Provisions from New-Orleans—		
Beef trcs	—	9
" bbls	—	1,050
Pork trcs	1,114	1,726
" bbls	13,204	9,769
" bulk, tons	250	30
Lard trcs	1,511	1,536
" bbls	2,212	3,285
" kegs	11,432	7,177
Pimento bags	5,052	2,869
Salt—		
Liverpool tons	1,342	334
" sacks	63,857	67,228
Coastwise "	76,366	59,388
Cadiz lasts	—	—
St. Ubes moys	—	—
West Indies bush	137,333	97,626
Sugar—from		
Foreign ports hhds	12,574	16,722
" trcs	355	322
" bbls	2,653	2,542
" bxs	773	3,597
" bags	11,345	8,310
Coastwise hhds	13,153	7,173
" casks	36	450
" bbls	271	3,432
Tinplate bxs	2,819	6,506

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Among the articles of western product of primary importance which cannot but be affected both by the completion of the Pittsburgh and Baltimore route, and the opening of the Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road to Wheeling, is tobacco. Baltimore has for years been a leading market for this commodity—the inspection of which has reached seventy thousand hogsheads per annum—and although New-Orleans has heretofore exceeded this city in her annual aggregate receipts, there is every ground for the belief that Baltimore, through her rapid, cheap and certain lines of rail-road communication, will attract to herself a large portion of the tobacco of the West, which has heretofore descended the Mississippi, and she will thus be rendered *de facto* and permanently the tobacco market of the Union. The European capital concentrated here for the purchase and exportation of the article is ample, and will certainly expand with the demands created by the new accessions from the West.

The provision trade of Baltimore must also receive a fresh and powerful impetus by reason of our newly completed rail-road communications to Wheeling and Pittsburgh. In this important and constantly increasing branch of trade, there is to be found displayed a degree of enterprise, intelligence and energy, which affords the gratifying assurance that its increase will be met with enlarged capital and all other facilities that the interests of buyer and seller may require. We are credibly informed that the value of the provision trade in this city alone, during the last year, was *eight millions of dollars.* The business of provision packing, in which Baltimore is at this time so largely in advance of the other seaboard cities, both in the extent of operations and reputation for excellence, is also likely to experience a great increase from our rail-road communications. In regard to *position* as a provision packing point, Baltimore possesses advantages not to be found elsewhere. At the season for the prosecution of this business, the temperature here is very generally at the desired happy medium point, being neither too cold to prevent the thorough curing of the meat, nor too warm to cause it to spoil.

The importance of the flour market of Baltimore is shown in the fact that the inspections of the year just closed have reached the extraordinary total of one million three hundred and seven thousand barrels, a larger aggregate than has ever before been attained. When the new flour trade is added which our rail-road communications must secure from the West, the probabilities are, that the aggregate just above named will soon be doubled, and that Baltimore will take the first rank in this item of trade.

Although we have no detailed actual data on the subject, we feel warranted in saying, that the foreign and domestic liquor trade is steadily on the increase—to be swelled materially, we have no doubt, by the domestic article which the West will send to this market, as well as by importations from abroad.

Notwithstanding all the disadvantages under which Baltimore has heretofore labored in the absence of cheap and rapid communications with the West, her character as a leading grocery market has been successfully maintained; and now that her long indulged aspirations are realized, and the iron-roads from her harbor to the Ohio River are at length completed, the energy and enterprise of her merchants will take good care that their friends in the interior shall be supplied on even better terms than heretofore. During the year just closed, the coffee trade of Baltimore has comprised an aggregate import of 248,248 bags. We are enabled to state that coffee will shortly be carried to Cleveland from Baltimore, via Pittsburgh, in less than sixty hours, and at less than fifty cents per hundred pounds. Facilities of this character will enable Baltimore to maintain a successful competition with any and all of her sister cities, and insure her a fair share of the grocery trade of the lake country.

In domestic dry goods, it is known that Baltimore has for many years past carried on a very heavy and successful trade with the West; a trade that has arisen from a very small beginning to a present enormous aggregate both in extent and value; and in this branch of business, too, we may confidently predict a still more rapid increase, under the influence of the new and important facilities of access created by our lines of communication with the West, the Northwest and Southwest.

The business of the Baltimore market in the sale of European dry goods is growing steadily and healthfully, and

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this department of our trade must now experience a still more rapid expansion. A sure basis of calculation upon which this opinion is founded, exists in the fact that Baltimore will now possess all the elements of a large and regular export trade to Europe, the returns for which will, of course, be in such articles as will best suit the wants, comforts and luxuries of the Western and Southern states.

The advantageous position of Baltimore as a manufacturing locality has long been understood. Its water-power, for extent and availability, is not surpassed; and superadded to these advantages is the possession of a healthful and genial climate. The development of the Cumberland coal region, and the low price at which its valuable mineral fuel is furnished in Baltimore—excelling beyond question all other kinds of fuel for the generation of steam—cannot fail to give a new impetus to all departments of domestic manufacturing industry. Through the instrumentality of the Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road, the coal of Alleghany county is brought from the mines to Baltimore in the brief space of fifty hours or less, and furnished on the wharves or at the forge fires and steam engines of our workshops at the very low rate of $3.50 per ton.

The arrangements recently concluded by the Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road Company for the large increase of its motive and transporting power, will bring to this city annually 600,000 tons of Cumberland coal, with the certainty of a steady prospective increase—the demand for it having been always ahead of the supply. From the Susquehanna valley, we are certain, also, of large supplies of anthracite coals, both by railway and canal, embracing all the descriptions, and existing in the greatest abundance—nearer to Baltimore than to any other city on tide-water, and at prices as low as can be furnished elsewhere.

Although this article has already been extended to a greater length than we contemplated at its commencement, we cannot forego allusion to the very superior pig iron made in the vicinity of Baltimore. It is unsurpassed for the purposes of car and engine wheels. The ore is found in great abundance, and the manufacture of the iron can be increased to any extent, inasmuch as wood fuel is obtained in abundance from the shores of the Bay and its tributaries, which is not the case in any of the cities east of Baltimore. Large quantities of this iron are now carried to New-England, and there made into car-wheels for the supply of the New-England rail-roads. Already Baltimore is able to boast of the most extensive establishments in the Union for the manufacture of the rolling machinery of rail-roads. This assertion is proved by the fact that at this time Mr. Ross Winans is finishing, complete for service, *a locomotive engine every four days*, or three engines every two weeks—the value of each engine being about *ten thousand dollars*. We may add that his preparations are so extensive that if required he can complete two engines per week. The first locomotive for burning mineral coal in the generation of steam was built in the shops of Mr. Winans. His engines, adapted to that kind of fuel, for burthen trains particularly, enjoy a higher reputation than any other in this country. His working-force employed in this description of machinery alone, is, at the present time, *seven hundred men*. There are now building, and under contract, at the various establishments in this city, about two thousand burthen cars.

ART. VIII.—RESOURCES, &c., OF PHILADELPHIA *

MR. TYSON'S LETTERS TO THE LATE WM. PETER, BRITISH CONSUL.—NO. I.

MY DEAR SIR:—Your official connection with our port has led you to take some interest in its commerce, and a residence of ten years in Philadelphia has enabled you to form a clear notion of its wants and capacities. Among other intelligent inquirers, you have often asked, why a line, not merely of *propellers*—desirable as these are—but of *regular steamers*, to London or Liverpool, has not been established here, as in New-York and Boston. I propose to

* We have been favored by the author, Job R. Tyson, LL.D., with a corrected copy of his admirable letters, and shall give them in consecutive numbers of the Review to our readers.—ED. REVIEW.

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throw together such thoughts as this inquiry suggests, and to glance at the past fortunes and present prospects of the port, in the belief that both the retrospect and the anticipation justify and demand a serious effort for their introduction.

In the solicitude I may discover to build up the fair renown and true grandeur of Philadelphia to the proportions of which she is so easily capable, you, at least, will not believe that I am influenced by a sordid or pecuniary object. I am not a merchant, and have no motive to sensibility for the spot we inhabit, but the interest and attachment which spring from the associations of birth, the ties of kindred, and the memory of honored ancestors for six generations. These make me alive to her honest fame and just rank in the great community of cities; they certainly render me partial, but I hope neither extravagant nor foolish, notwithstanding the sentiment—

Non simul cuiquam conceditur amare et sapere.

The extension of our commerce lies near to my heart only in connection with its results; with that enlargement of spirit which great opulence usually engenders, and those richer blessings of a high civilization which it secures, multiplies, and diffuses.

For nearly a century Philadelphia was regarded in Europe, not only as the great city, but the focus of refinement and civilization in the western world. It is a mortifying truth, that though in all respects eminently entitled to her former repute, except, perhaps, in numerical precedence, she has so dwindled in English and European estimation as to be viewed only as a speck in the commercial horizon—an insignificant point on the American map. It is my purpose to show how she has thus receded from the transatlantic vision, why her foreign commerce has declined, the means of retrieving it, and how necessary its restoration is to her prosperity. I shall do this, mainly to invoke your influence with British capitalists, to aid the introduction into her port of a line of *steam vessels* of the largest class.

We are all aware of the cloud, which, to the eyes of many Englishmen, is still suspended over the venerable House of Pennsylvania, conjured up by the idle story of an intended *repudiation* of the public debt. To this delicate topic I may, in the course of my letter, incidentally refer. Permit me, for the present, to expatiate upon the text proposed for elucidation.

I will assume, then, thant he ancient reputation of Pennsylvania for good faith and integrity, though deliberately fired at, was not mortally wounded, by the facetious bullets of the late reverend Canon of St. Paul's. The militant creditor was as wide of the mark in aiming at so small a sect as "the drab-coated gentry," and holding them amenable for the supposed delinquencies of the state, as he certainly missed it, in so precipitately selling his Pennsylvania bonds under par! But to proceed to the main subject of my epistle.

Pennsylvania was the colony of mark in the western world. Though the last settled but one of the English provinces, she soon outran them all in the race of population and the arts of life. Three-quarters of a century younger than Virginia, and sixty-two years younger than Massachusetts, she distanced, within the lapse of the former period from her settlement, all the other colonies but "the ancient dominion." Every bound of the young giant was hailed as an omen of future greatness, by the parent country. She and her sisters were ranked among the fairest flowers of the *regalia*. Her ingenious sons—her Rittenhouse, her Franklin, her West, *et Dii Minores*—were received in London with caresses as British subjects, and conducted to such honors as learned appreciation and polite society could confer. The literature of England at that day conferred upon them celebrity, or echoed the justice of their domestic fame, until the keen-sighted discoveries of subsequent years, detected the orthodoxy of opposite sentiments. The same writers who had been eloquent in their praises—made less kind by political changes—could see little merit in philosophers or artists who had ceased to be British subjects, and in a country which had ceased to belong to the British crown.

But, notwithstanding the chills and damps of British criticism, Philadelphia continued to maintain her good-humored complacency, and a healthy commercial prosperity. She was so disloyal as to supply many of the sinews of war, to sustain the new government. As the seat of the American Congress, and

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the chief city of the United Colonies, she was freely exposed to the perils of the conflict. But she participated in the benefits of that unrestricted commerce which the Revolution secured. Her exports, which were less than eight millions of dollars in 1790, rose in 1796 to the sum of $17,523,866. Chiefly with Philadelphia capital, Pennsylvania made the first turnpike road, excavated the first canal, and constructed the first railway, of any magnitude, in this country. The importance of internal improvements employed the tongues and pens of her best speakers and writers, at an early day. These sentiments concurring with the influence of her example and the experience of its effects, diffused a similar spirit through New-York and New-England. You will not accuse me of indulging in a boastful or vain-glorious spirit, in noting what history records. It is simply the truth that Philadelphia, in all the duties of a large community—in the construction of hydraulic works for the introduction of pure water from without her municipal limits—in sanitary measures—in a complete system of subterranean drainage—worthy of imperial Rome for solidity of structure—was equally in advance of her sister cities. Her progress required and sustained these improvements. The rich trade of the West seemed destined by nature, aided by the facilities of improved roads, to centre in Philadelphia. As the metropolis of the colonies, she became the capital of the United States, under the laws of the Federal Union. Her trade to China and South America was large, and secured golden returns. The vessels of her merchants unfolded their canvas in almost every sea. Colossal fortunes were amassed by an expanded, intelligent, and successful commerce. Under the genial influences of kindly wealth, heaven-blessed charities were founded, and conveniences, arts, and elegancies were multiplied. It forms a portion of the letter I inflict on you, to recount the means by which these advantages were lost, and how they can be restored, with those accretions which time has accumulated.

While thus prosperous, and her commercial progress eminently onward, Philadelphia became informed of the rich mineral wealth of the interior. The vast deposits of coal and iron were so alluring in their promises, that the public mind seized upon them with avidity. The first difficulty was to subdue those wild and magnificent fortresses of nature—those inaccessible walls of rock and mountain—with which she delighted to guard her treasures. To penetrate their recesses, to scale their conglomerate ramparts, and convey the hidden mineral to market over a country whose undulations of surface seemed to laugh at the effort—was ridiculed as the dream of fanaticism or the dictate of folly. But impediments seemed only to stimulate activity, to quicken the spirit of speculation, to open the purse of enterprise. Much of the capital which had been successfully employed in foreign commerce, was thus diverted from its accustomed channel, and taught to wander to the hills, the ravines, and the rivers of the Lehigh, the Schuylkill, and the Susquehanna.

Many millions of dollars were buried in the recesses of these mountains, or in attempts to wind round their valleys, or improve the navigation of their streams. Perhaps a HUNDRED MILLIONS—and I do not lightly hazard this estimate—does not exceed the sum which was transferred from the concerns of mercantile activity, and absorbed in unproductive investments, made to develop the trade, the agriculture, and above all, the mineral wealth of the interior. But prodigies were achieved in various parts of the state. The Schuylkill and Susquehanna rivers were first united by a canal, and both afterwards connected by the same kind of highway with Philadelphia. That vast arm of the Atlantic, the Chesapeake Bay, was joined by canal with the Delaware, whose noble waters find a ready outlet to the sea. The Ohio River, at Pittsburgh, was made to communicate, by aqueduct, with the great northern lakes, at the town of Erie. One of the great coal-fields of the state was brought to the gates of Philadelphia by a fine canal and a noble railway; and innumerable other works, of present expense and future utility, were undertaken and completed. Fifty miles at least of underground rail-roads, are said to exist in Schuylkill county alone. The locks of the Lehigh canal are the deepest and finest in the world; and nothing can exceed in solidity and beauty, the inclined planes and other artificial works of that opulent region. Of

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the coal mines and iron mines, of the canals and railways of the state, which were undertaken on that day of blind and wanton expenditure, how few have realized the dreams or satisfied the hopes of their ardent projectors! The geology of the state had not been explored, the art of mining was imperfectly understood, and the science of engineering, so yclept, was marked only by improvidence, by fraud, and by blunders. These gigantic efforts, like all premature and undigested schemes, were fruitful only of sad results to the undertakers. The coal trade was to be nurtured and matured by slow degrees; it is yet in its infancy, and only now beginning to reward its owners. The iron manufacture, which was called into existence by the *protective* system, must, in order to flourish, be sustained by the stability of genial legislation. Exposed to the caprices of fluctuating sentiment, and the evils of a step-dame policy, it continues to cripple or ruin the manufacturer.

While the commercial capital was thus wasting away, and the commercial spirit absorbed by momentous projects at a distance, the Erie Canal was verging to completion. It was intended to conduct, by the way of the lakes to New-York, that western trade which had been the exclusive property of Philadelphia. The object was fully attained. By this artificial highway, our natural heritage, the trade of the West was transferred to a sagacious and vigilant rival. For a time, our shrewdest citizens were too much amused and delighted with their mountain treasures in the interior, to perceive the decline of their foreign commerce, and the adverse turn of the commercial tide in their domestic trade. The state, animated by a proper spirit towards her metropolis, determined not to submit, an unresisting victim, to an inversion of the natural laws of trade. She planned a grand scheme of internal improvements, which proposed, among its primary objects, the irrevocable appropriation to herself of the western produce and markets, and a part of the commerce of the lakes. This theory, if prosecuted with the intelligence and forecast which gave it birth, would have neutralized the effects of the Erie Canal, and intercepted the fame of Clinton, by undermining or removing the base of its monument. But owing to irretrievable mistakes in the construction of the great highway, which was made to Pittsburgh, the western trade refused the conveyance,—a conveyance, which was, in truth, of such a nature as to confirm it inalienably to New-York.

The chain which was to bind Philadelphia with the West was not continuous and unbroken; composed of intermingling and welded links; but severed, disjointed, fragmentary. It was an amphibious connection of land and water, consisting of two railways separated by canal, and of two canals separated by railway—happily elucidating the defects peculiar to both modes of transit, with the advantages of neither. This improvement being useless as a competitor of the Erie Canal, and other projects being unfinished, the public works disappointed private hope in the benefits they promised, and public hope in the unprofitable burden they imposed. The commonwealth, oppressed by her debt, and the citizens impoverished by their losses, the western trade alienated and the foreign trade neglected and diminishing, Pennsylvania presented the reverse side of her early picture—one not pleasing to contemplate, but, I presume, less painful and humiliating in the remembrance and retrospect, than in the experience and reality.

These misfortunes were accompanied or quickly followed by others. Severe losses in the China trade ruined some of the largest ship-owners, and unwisely led to the total abandonment, at our port, of this lucrative branch of commerce. In the gloom which pervaded the commercial ranks of society, some of our most astute and enterprising merchants removed to New-York, and aided by their capital and intelligence to build up that prosperity, to which the acquisition of the western trade and the foreign commerce of Philadelphia had largely contributed. Other melancholy events succeeded. The Bank of the United States, though situated in this city, did not render such accommodations to the business community here as were favorable to the growth of the foreign, or the enlargement of the coasting trade. Still paper money was so abundant as to foster remote enterprises, and lead to many visionary and extravagant schemes. The bankruptcy of that great institution, so long the cherished object of our pride and confidence, was as sud-

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den as the descent of an avalanche. Other financial disasters followed it, in quick succession. These failures suddenly contracted, within the narrowest limits, a currency of unusual expansion, and threatened to involve our people in a general insolvency. Prices, which had been unnaturally inflated, became so depressed as to be merely nominal. All exchange of commodities was at an end, negotiations of sale and purchase stopped, and the payment of debts ceased. The banking capital of the city was reduced by the simple process of *annihilation*, from *fifty-one millions* to *eleven millions* of dollars! Where ruddy health, perhaps unnatural plethora, had appeared, all was paleness and dejection, wan extenuation, and prostrate syncope. If a volcano had opened its fiery jaws in our midst, or an earthquake had shaken the firmest edifices to their foundations, the popular terror could not have been more complete, the distress and dismay could not have been more painful or pervading. The multitudes over the state, who had entered into engagements in a moment of universal confidence, and upon the faith of fair but deceptive appearances, as they were unable to pay, were quickly required to make liquidation.

One of the most humiliating consequences to Pennsylvania, of that season of gloom and consternation, was the present inability of the commonwealth to meet her obligations. She suspended the payment of interest on her debt, and issued certificates in the place of money. No private person of mature age, or responsible character, that I ever heard of, no public man of any faction, and no state paper of any description, ever counseled or hinted at such a scheme of redress as the *sponge*, such a measure of relief as *repudiation*. The sentiment of both the great political parties in the state, at a time of deep despondency and unusual excitement, was united—without one single wrong-headed exception among the adherents of either—in favor of a speedy resumption, and the honorable redemption of the public faith. A rigid system of economy was introduced into all the departments of administration—by retrenchment of expenses, reduction of salaries, and discontinuance of the public works. These measures could have in view but the one object of *payment*. In order to meet the demands of the treasury and pay off the public creditor, the improvements of the state which were finished, were offered for sale to the highest bidder. But the currency was distrusted or gone. There was no representative of value, and pecuniary means were hoarded or inaccessible. No bidder could be found who had the courage or ability to make an offer. The calamities of shipwreck marked the ravages of that fearful storm. When its fury was spent, and the eye could coolly scan the track of the hurricane, nothing but blight and desolation met the view. Persons accustomed to opulence were reduced to the extremity of indigence. Our fair city, as a community, lost aggregately an immense amount of capital, varying according to the principles of different estimates, between FIFTY AND EIGHTY MILLIONS OF DOLLARS. But enough has been said to account for the diminution of Philadelphia commerce.

The next question occurs, how it is to be regained—but I will defer the consideration of this topic to another day. In the mean time, believe me to be, yours, very truly, &c.

ART. IX.—THE REPUBLIC OF VENEZUELA.

[We referred, in several general articles upon South America, to the history, etc., of Venezuela, condensing them afterwards into the *Industrial Resources*, and believe that the following, contributed by Louis Baker, a short time since, to the National Intelligencer, will supply all omissions.]

A COMMERCIAL VIEW OF THE REPUBLIC OF VENEZUELA, ITS SEAPORTS, PRODUCTS, EXPORTS, AND IMPORTS, AND ITS TRADE WITH THE UNITED STATES.

THE Republic of Venezuela is situated in 7° north latitude, and between 62° and 72° west longitude from Greenwich; is divided from the British possessions by the river Orinoco, which she owns; joins Brazil, and has for her western boundary New Granada; with a population of a million and a half, one-third

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of which are engaged in agriculture. Only a few years ago the Colombian Republic was a united affair between several states, prosperous and advancing in all the advantages of life and action; but revolution after revolution breaking out, Bolivar dying, left the country in civil war; the military chieftains of that day, all, no doubt, well-wishers of their common country, but none individually able to carry out their liberal views for its ultimate benefit, quarreling among themselves. Circumstances unforeseen, but no doubt repented of now, occurring, eventually compelled these states to become the separate governments which to-day are recognized as such by the United States and Europe.

Caraccas, the capital of Venezuela, is now being built up again very rapidly. It lies in a vast plain, and from the tops of the mountains which overlook it, north and south, it has a beautiful but silent appearance. In 1812 an earthquake destroyed its edifices, bridges, roads, and killed nearly half of its inhabitants. The horrors of that time have been narrated to me by an old Venezuelan, who says that "plunder and revolution, fire and famine, were the order of the day." Thousands of people, losing everything, were compelled to emigrate, thus leaving Caraccas deserted and a heap of ruins. But things are changing, and this city bids fair again to reach the splendor of her ancient times. Caraccas is accessible to Bogota, Panama, Mexico, and even to Chili and Peru, by the old stone roads made in the time of the Spaniards, but at present not used. So covered are they with trees and dirt, that it would be difficult to find out and clear them for use.

The mountains which divide Laguayra from Caraccas are a branch of the Andes, and continue through to New-Granada. At present the population of Caraccas is about 70,000 souls; in 1812 it was 40,000.

This city can boast of many splendid buildings, such as churches, convents, public edifices, and bridges—many of them the venerable and solid work of the old Spaniards. The president's dwelling, the government-house, the general quarters for the troops, and the old Masonic Lodge—which, by-the-by, stood the shock of the earthquake—and many others, command the attention of the visitor. The squares are laid off in a handsome manner. Bolivar or Independence Square is the principal one; it is used to-day as a market and parade-ground. Near by is the cathedral and the bishop's palace, with some two or three convents.

In the cathedral, on a bier covered with black velvet, worked with silver stars, lamps continually burning around—a railing surrounding the whole to keep off intruders—lies in silent grandeur the mortal remains of General and President Bolivar, the liberator of his country, and the champion of freedom in South America. He died some years ago in Carthagena, and at his own request his remains were brought over and deposited there. His memory still lives in the hearts of his countrymen.

The people of Caraccas are polished and social, kind and hospitable to strangers. The city is very extensive, every house having a garden attached. Carriages are not used, but every one rides. The beautiful environs of the town invite one daily to take a walk, or a ride on horseback, to enjoy its varied scenery.

The trade of Venezuela is very extensive, and we are, as neighbors and consumers, more interested in the development and increased success of its trade, advantageous as it is to both of us, than in that of any other nation.

Laguayra lies directly on the seaboard, in latitude 10° 31′ 52″ north, and longitude 67° 7′ 45″ west. It derives its name from an Indian chief, who held possession of it before the time of the Spaniards. It is so situated that from the mountains behind the town it affords the visitor no other view than the ocean itself. But he is recompensed for his travel many thousand feet above, on his road to Caraccas. Everything is still and quiet, save the occasional noise of the muleteer bell and call, or the sudden flapping of the wings of the mountain eagle, as he rises and poises himself for a moment over the valley, and then skims off, perhaps to pay a visit to some friend on the other side of the Andes. The air is balmy and playful; flowers of every hue, indigenous fruits, surround you on all sides; and then the view, when you are on a level with "Silla," or "Saddle of Caraccas"—the noble town of Caraccas on the plain some thousands of feet below you on one side, the ocean on the other, little Laguayra like a speck on the horizon, all tend to repay you for

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your time and trouble spent in crossing the mountains.

The temperature of weather at Caraccas is generally from 60° to 70° Fahrenheit—a climate remarkably healthy and beneficial in a peculiar degree to persons subject to chronic diseases; that of Laguayra is about 70° to 80°.

The distance from Laguayra to Caraccas in a direct line is only about two leagues. The access, however, to that city is by the old paved road, made by the Spaniards, steep and badly constructed, but safe, and only used by pedestrians and horsemen: mules are employed to carry burdens to and fro over it. The new road constructed by the Venezuelan government is the only one used and traveled on by wagons, carrying from point to point goods of all descriptions. Its length is about thirty miles.

Laguayra contains a very good hotel; this building, the church, custom-house, and some dozen merchant establishments, are about all that adorn the town, with the exception of the "plaza," or public square, planted with the almond tree, in the centre of which is a beautiful fountain. It is used for a market and parade. Opposite it is the arsenal for troops, military and naval stores, ammunition, &c.; part of the town is walled in, and could defend itself against a strong invasion. This town suffered dreadfully during the earthquake of 1812; so did Valencia and Puerto Cabello. Macatia and Macuto, on either side of Laguayra, are fine and flourishing villages. Laguayra contains from fifteen to twenty thousand inhabitants, about one-third foreigners. The climate is good, and the water salubrious, running over a bed of wild sarsaparilla, and coming directly from the mountains over the town.

Laguayra being the principal and most frequented seaport in Venezuela, its adjacent position to Caraccas gives it unquestionably a decided superiority and preference over the other seaports of the republic, the principal amount of coffee, cocoa, indigo, fustic, hides, &c., being shipped from thence; and it supplies not only Caraccas, but all the back country with foreign produce. Provisions are at all times cheap and abundant. The foreign shipping visiting this port amounts to about two hundred and fifty vessels per annum, sixty of which are American. The port is a roadstead, but safe. Vessels can lay at from six to twelve fathoms water, and in more if they wish, lighters from the mole, where the custom-house is situated, going alongside to give and receive cargo, which is done without danger. The break-water put up some years ago by an American Company, is rapidly going to decay. Strong and responsible foreign and native commercial houses, and consuls from the different European powers, as well as from the United States, are established here. Venezuela has a considerable foreign and coasting trade. The customs at Laguayra alone amount to at least one and a half million of dollars per annum. Every kind of American produce sells well and profitably in Laguayra. Her navy consists of three or four small sail vessels and two war-steamers of large size.

It is recommended to all who may trade to the Spanish Main to try Laguayra first, and reap some of the advantages which are now being enjoyed by many foreigners, and by a very few of our own countrymen in this trade; which, with the exception of Brazil and the country on the Pacific side, offers more advantages, profits, and chances for trade, than any other part of South America. I allude by this to the great trade, if followed up, which the Orinoco could yield. Our proximity from port to port, the real desire of the government of Venezuela to trade with us, is, I think, sufficient incentives for us to enter with more capital and more zeal in this trade, and particularly when Venezuela can furnish us with the same produce, as much in quantity and as cheap in price, as any other part of South America. There is at present no banking system in Venezuela; foreign coin is used (a great deal of American gold) in the transactions of business; and all money coming into Venezuela is examined at the custom-house before it is circulated; thus it is that no bad coin is found there. There is a direct communication with St. Thomas and the islands by sail packet and steam—the latter runs the whole coast up and down, touching at Curacoa with the mails.

Emanating from the mountains and near Lake Parana is the great River Orinoco. It has many tributaries, and as it empties into the sea, its force from its descent is so great, that for some miles

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out at sea the whole of the water before you is muddy, almost black. The Indians still live on its banks; they are peaceful and industrious, and do not mix with the people of the country except to trade. They own no other rulers but those they have among themselves. Before leaving this part of Venezuela, I wish to make a few remarks upon that most dreadful of all diseases, the leprosy, its cure, &c. I also find the same quoted in Count Segur's Travels in South America some years ago, nay many. It seems by the tradition handed down to the people in this and other parts of South America, that the leprosy was very common among them, and that there was no cure for it, (in Brazil it is so to this day.) An old black slave woman who had it, was driven out in the woods to die. This occurred in Guatemala. After wandering about some time, she, very much frightened, met with a party of Indians, who, instead of molesting her, or being at all annoyed at her situation, treated her kindly, took her to their place of abode in the forests, fed her, and began to cure her, by giving her to eat a raw lizard cut up in small pieces. This was done for three weeks. She was cured; and one day the Indians having a battle with another tribe, she escaped and found her way home. The people all thought that a miracle had been performed on her, until she told them the secret and the remedy; and after it had been used for some time in that part of South America this disease disappeared. The remedy spoken of gives the person very strong sweats, and a desire to discharge saliva, whereby the blood becomes once more pure through the pores of the skin and the mouth. They also say that hydrophobia has been cured in the same way; whether it is so or not I will not pretend to say, never in my sojourn in that country having seen any case of either disease or the treatment. But this tradition to the present day is handed down to the people, and some have assured me that the above is true, (and they are persons of veracity)—that they in their own times have seen the remedy of the lizard applied with success to the above-mentioned diseases.

The breadth of the chain of mountains in Venezuela is about thirty miles, and the highest point is about seven thousand feet high. The "Silla," or "Saddle of Caraccas," from its height, can be seen out many miles at sea, and is the mariner's direction for Laguayra. The "Cumbre" or the "Top" is another, from whence Caraccas, on the other side of the mountain, is seen.

Beyond these mountains are vast plains, covered with immense numbers of wild cattle, the hides, tallow, and horns of which are brought to the seaboard and embarked for the United States and Europe.

Live cattle are also exported in large quantities to the islands in the Caribbean Sea at great profits. There are many other ports which are of consequence to the coasting trade, but as yet are not frequented by American vessels. The other principal ports frequented by foreigners are Maracaibo, Puerto Cabello, Barcelona, Cumana, and Angostura, or "Ciudad Bolivar." This last, situated on the river Orinoco, two hundred and fifty miles from its mouth or entrance from the sea, is a very finely-built town, has a large trade with the interior in hides, horns, tallow, &c., which are sent abroad.

The nature of the trade of Puerto Cabello, the seaport of Valencia, is pretty much the same as Laguayra, and is a place of considerable size; contains about ten thousand inhabitants, but can boast of nothing as to the beauty of its buildings. It has a direct communication by Valencia with the back country adjacent. Valencia is a large town, of a handsome and gay appearance, containing about twenty thousand souls; distance from Puerto Cabello about thirty miles; situated on a lake of its own name, a splendid sheet of water, abundant in all kinds of game and fish, which tend greatly to the support of the neighboring people.

The city of Barcelona, also a large and well-built town, containing about fifteen thousand inhabitants, situated on the river Niveri, has a heavy trade of hides, cocoa, skins, and some coffee, but Europe receives more of this by one-half than we do.

Maracaibo is situated on a lake of the same name; an extensive and well built city, containing about twenty thousand inhabitants. It was the seat of the last contest for power between the liberal and oligarch power, and has suffered much in its business on that account. Its trade is the general produce of Venezuela, sent to the United States and

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Europe. The lake is navigable for large vessels some miles up.

Many splendid forest trees of fine texture abound in this vast country, fit for building houses, shipping, wharfs, &c. The cedar, the mahogany of the country, is durable, abundant, and cheap; the espino, amarillo, a yellow-grained wood, used for furniture, very durable and easily worked; the cedro espino, used for flooring, &c.; the mango, the cork tree, the cano, used for lathing and roofing purposes; the nispero, used for beams and rafters; lignum-vitæ and fustic, which latter sell readily for eight dollars per ton. Many others could be enumerated, but we conclude with the palmo, which, with the cocoa-nut tree, are two of the most useful in Venezuela for the general uses and wants of the people. We may also enumerate the milk and wax tree, which are found here, both producing a vegetable milk and wax fit for use.

The other productions of Venezuela are coffee, at from four to ten cents per pound; sugar, rum, cocoa from sixteen to twenty cents per pound; cotton, vanilla, and castor bean, cocoa oil, indigo from fifty to sixty cents per pound; tobacco, rice, wool, hemp, wheat, corn, hides from five to six dollars per cwt.; tallow, horns, skins, leather, cattle, jerk beef, Jesuit bark, sarsaparilla, ipecacuanha, and many other medicinal gums and plants; also, cochineal—the insect and the vegetable—which grows on the Orinoco; soap, candles, paper, mats, straw hats, cotton stuffs, hammocks, glass, &c. Provisions are cheap and abundant; the best of game, and plenty; birds, deer, &c., are found throughout the country.

The pecari or wild hog of the country, easily caught and domesticated with the common hog, abounds in the mountains. The experiment has been tried with success in Europe. Fish the finest, and turtle the best ever seen. Vegetables: potatoes, beans, plantains, bananas, pumpkins, yams, corn, ucas, &c. Fruits: lemon, orange, grape, pine, melon, guava, mango, aguacati, &c. The tamarind, though indigenous to Venezuela, is brought in preserves from Curacoa. This country is rich in minerals: coal is found in Barcelona; salt in Cumana; sulphur, iron, copper, gold and silver, and platina and lead, are found in many parts of the republic, but for the want of manual-labor hands to work, these discoveries produce nothing, either to the native or foreigner. Precious stones are also found there. The pearl fishery on the coast of Margarita, which yielded a large profit to the people of that country at one time, is now almost neglected.

Salt abounds at the island of Margarita—it can be bought for six cents the cwt. It is of a very superior quality. This island also produces the "divi-divi," a plant used for tanning leather. It is distant about thirty miles from the main land, off Cumana. Margarita is the name of the principal seaport, which is safe and commodious for large vessels. The town is well built, and has a population of 15,000 souls. All kinds of American produce sell well and readily here. Articles from the United States are admitted in Venezuela at the rate of duties attached, viz., beef, pork, lard, soap, candles, ale in bottles, dry goods, earthenware, ironware, glassware, canvas, cordage, &c., generally 30 per cent. on the invoice. Chairs not put up, and mahogany in slabs, the same. Flour $3 per barrel; biscuit 4 cents per pound; cassia 8 cts. per lb; spices 6 cts. per oz.; white and yellow pine boards, &c., $5 per million feet; paints assorted 3 cts. per lb.; rosin, tar, pitch, $1 per bbl.; brandy in demijohns, 5 gallons each, $3; sugar-boilers, mills, and machinery of all descriptions free; salt fish the same. The port charges on foreign vessels trading to Venezuela are, viz., tonnage duty 37 cts. per ton; entrance fee $7; anchorage 18 cts. per ton; water 12 cts. per ton; light 6 cts. per ton; health officer, $3; captain of the port, $3; interpreter, $3. For a vessel of 150 tons, the port charges would amount to $140 Venezuelan currency, or $100 United States currency.

All duties and charges are made in Venezuelan currency, called "Macuquino," which is less by twenty-five per cent. than the United States currency.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—The pound is sixteen ounces; the quintal is four arrobas, of 25 pounds each; the fanega is equal to one bushel United States; the arroba of oil contains three gallons United States, and the arroba of wine four gallons United States; the foot measure is twelve pulgados, or inches; the vara is thirty-three inches United States.

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Value of Silver and Gold Foreign Coin in Venezuela by law of Jan. 10, 1848:

United States Currency.	Venezuelan Curr'cy.
Fifty cents, silver	67 cts.
One dollar, silver	$1 34 "
Brazil (960 reis)	1 34 "
(The same with all other dollars.)	
French five-franc pieces	1 25 "
Doubloon, gold, Argentine	19 50 "
" Central America	20 00 "
" Spanish, and all others	21 00 "
American gold eagle	26 75 "
" half eagle	13 37 "
English sovereign	6 50 "
Napoleon, forty francs	10 25 "

Exchange on the United States and Europe varies from one to five per cent., according to circumstances.

Two million hides and one million bags of coffee, as well as an immense quantity of indigo, cocoa, fustic, &c., are exported annually from Venezuela to the United States, England, Spain, Germany, Italy and other parts of Europe. Yet this trade is very little known to us. It is monopolized by a few foreign houses, (and that is the case all over South America,) some of whom do the American business at immense profits and no losses. The question may be asked, "How is this?" Out of many causes well known to me why this trade has been neglected, I will mention but one, and of that I am cognizant. It is this: The foreigners in that country, aided by their friends, no matter who and where they are, are continually complaining of losses, of fears of revolution, bad debts, and the many dangers to be encountered by those who may wish to embark in this trade, that it at once and directly discourages the beginner, and he leaves that field of speculation entirely in the hands of his friend who has given him so *fine an account* of Venezuela, for another. Monopoly begins again, and thus it goes.

But things are changing. The whole country, under the fostering care of the liberal party, General Jose Gregorio Monegas, President, is quiet, and its trade to a great degree more so now than ever for years past. Public schools are being established throughout the Republic.

It is a country blessed by nature with a fine climate, rich soil, health and wealth combined, and it only requires that she follow our example in the arts and sciences, education, morals, laws, &c., for her to become a bright star in the midst of the South American States, to benefit the world at large and herself in particular.

ART. X.—MICHIGAN—HISTORICAL AND STATISTICAL.

[The following able and instructive paper was prepared, at our request, by Charles Fox, Esq., of Michigan, a gentleman of varied information and of acknowledged public spirit. He is at present senior editor of the Farmers' Companion and Horticulturist, at Detroit. The paper constitutes another of our series of American States, which we intend shall be complete.]

The State of Michigan is naturally divided into two portions, the southern peninsula and the northern or Lake Superior country.

The first is bounded on the west and northwest by Lake Michigan, and on the east and northeast by Lake Huron, the River and Lake St. Clair, the Straits of Detroit and Lake Erie. At the south, it rests upon Ohio, Indiana and Illinois. The south line is one hundred and seventy-four miles east and west; and the length of the peninsula, north and south, three hundred miles.

The northern or upper peninsula begins at the eastern end of Lake Superior, runs southerly along the Sault Sainte Marie River, lies nearly at right angles with the southern peninsula, and is separated from it by a part of Lake Michigan as far as the Menomone River. It then takes a northwest course to the Montreal River, from the mouth of which it follows the southern shore of Lake Superior to the place of beginning, presenting an irregular and nearly isolated form, varying from twenty to one hundred and twenty-five miles in width.

If a barrier of eighteen feet high existed across the foot of Lake Huron, Lakes Huron and Michigan would rise to a level with Lake Superior; and if a similar barrier of thirty-one feet was placed across the foot of Lake Erie at Buffalo, the four lakes would become one uniform level, and merged in one immense inland sea.

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Table of the Height of Lake Superior, with the intermediate Lakes above, and their Distances from Tide-water.

Route.	Miles.	Feet.
St. Lawrence River, up to tide-water	— .. 450	— .. —
Level, Lake Ontario	200.. 650	— .. 232
" Lake Erie	175.. 825	333.. 565
" Lake Huron	340..1,165	13.. 578
" Lake Michigan	— .. —	— .. 578
" Lake Superior	240..1,405	18.. 596
West end of Lake Superior	490..1,895	— .. —

Table of the Mean Length, Breadth, Depth, Area, and Elevation of the Lakes.

	Mean Length, miles.	Mean Breadth, miles.	Mean Depth, feet.	Elevation, feet.	Area in square miles.
Lake Superior	400	80	900	596	32,000
Green Bay	100	20	500	578	2,000
Lake Michigan	320	70	1,000	578	22,400
Lake Huron	240	80	1,000	578	20,400
Lake St. Clair	20	18	20	570	360
Lake Erie	240	40	84	565	9,600
Lake Ontario	180	35	500	232	6,300
River St. Lawrence	—	—	20	—	940
Total					94,000

Economically, the surface of the state may be divided into *four* distinct portions. I. The borders. II. The lower half of the southern peninsula, extending a little north of Grand River, and including an area of nearly ten millions of square acres. III. The upper half of the same. IV. The mineral country in the north.

I. Nearly the whole of the southern peninsula is surrounded by a low level belt, consisting of lands more or less marshy and heavily timbered, the soil being a rich clay loam, interspersed here and there with ridges of sand. This belt varies in depth from five to forty miles along the borders of the lakes, and gives evidence of its having been submerged at a comparatively recent period. When it is cleared of its timber it becomes drier, and bears not only heavy crops of grain, especially if drained, but remarkably luxuriant grass and clover. The natural growth is chiefly blue grass (*Poa Compressa*); June grass, English grass, (*P. Pratensis*); and pasture grass, (*P. trivialis*); together with white clover (*Trifolium repens*). But timothy, (*Phleum pratense,*) and the red clovers, (*T. pratense et reflexum,*) when once introduced, soon become naturalized. The latter is indigenous, and in some places comes up as soon as the soil is plowed. Sedge (*Carex*), in a great variety of species, abounds in the damper places, and is cut in large quantities for hay. Cranberry marshes are also numerous, and add to the annual export from the state. This portion of the state promises to be eminent as a pasture and dairy district, but owing to its dense forest, it is yet less thickly settled than many other parts of the country.

II. After this belt is passed, the appearance of the state entirely changes, becoming picturesque and rolling; the soil is of a lighter and drier character; the timber more scanty; circumscribed marshes, natural meadows, and prairies abound; and small lakes or ponds everywhere delight the eye. The soil varies to a considerable extent, and may be divided into—1. Heavily timbered land, chiefly along the rivers and streams, generally of a deep, adhesive, loamy clay. 2. The barrens, a fair calcareous soil, not deep, and thinly covered with stunted oaks. 3. The White Oak Openings, which constitute the greater portion of this part of Michigan. They resemble fine old English parks, with the trees scattered in clumps, or at a considerable distance from each other, springing from a rich natural sod, gorgeous with flowers, and free from underbrush. The soil is a thin layer of black vegetable mould, intermixed with gravel. The subsoil consists of marl, limestone pebbles, sand, clay, and yellow loam. This land is eminently favorable for the production of wheat, for which purpose

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it is probably not surpassed in the United States; but the grasses and clovers do not succeed so well without plaster, and other manures. 4. The prairies, chiefly in the western part of the state, and limited in size, consist of a deep, black, vegetable mould, and resemble the best lands in Illinois; they are generally above the level of the surrounding country. 5. The Burr Oak Plains appear like cultivated orchards. The soil is composed of a mixture of the earth of the prairies, and the white oak openings; abounding in lime, as it does, it is eminently productive, and, next to the prairies, is preferred for agriculture. 6. The marshes, or meadows, are a striking and peculiar feature of the state. Exceedingly abundant, wet in winter, but generally dry enough to mow, formed of vegetable mould and marl, they are covered with a dense growth of long grasses, affording two tons to the acre, and fully recompense for the comparative difficulty of growing the cultivated grasses. As pasture they make excellent beef, and every thing prospers on them. They were a marked element of success in the early settlement of the state. 7. The lakes number not less than 3,000; "exceeding in number and beauty all others perhaps on the globe." Most of them contain rich beds of marl, nearly pure carbonate of lime, mixed with petrified shells. Of course, they give rise to numerous streams and rivers; and in consequence good mill-sites are to be met with every few miles. Both the lakes and streams abound in fine fish. The highest land in the state, or the "water-shed," in Hillsdale county, is 633 feet above Lake Michigan. The average height of the peninsula is 160 feet above the surface of the lakes; but the ponds, forming the sources of the rivers, are chiefly on the greatest elevation.

III. The upper half of the southern peninsula, north of Grand River, constitutes the *fine country*, generally sandy, and if the borders along the lakes be excepted, as yet sparsely settled, except by those engaged in the lumber business.

IV. The mineral country, including the whole of the upper peninsula, with its primitive rocks, long winters, heavy growth of timber, and broken country, will not probably attract the attention of farmers, to any great extent, until the rest of the state is thickly inhabited. This region, however, is celebrated for its healthy climate, and its freedom from bilious and pulmonary affections. It will be perceived from this hasty glance, that, physically, Michigan possesses within itself everything that an independent republic can require:—rich pasture-lands, unsurpassed grain soils, timber of great size and variety, both hard and soft, large quantities of which are exported not only to the west and south, but also to the seaboard—lakes, rivers and mill-streams, in abundance; fish, salt-springs and plaster quarries, copper, iron, zinc, silver, coal, limestone, sandstone and marl; a climate as moderate as that of Pennsylvania, and one of the driest in America, and, above all, it is so shaped, and so surrounded by water, that the greater portion of it is accessible to large vessels.

Michigan was first colonized by the French, about the year 1671, and the existence of native copper was ascertained early in the eighteenth century. The settlements, however, were few and far between, the European population being principally engaged in the fur trade, while a few devoted missionaries passed their lives in a vain endeavor to convert the Indians to Christianity. Cadets of good families appear to have been among the earlier settlers, if we can judge from the names still remaining, and the uniform politeness of the French *habitans*, which have survived nearly all other characteristics of the old régime. Detroit was planted in 1701, by M. de la Motte Cadillac, with one hundred men and a Jesuit; at which period buffalo ranged wild through the woods. In 1760 this country fell into the hands of the British. In 1766 we find the Hudson Bay Company extending their operations to this territory; and in 1783, the North-west Company was formed, for the purpose of collecting furs in Michigan. The following table exhibits the product of their trade for one year previous to 1774:

Beaver skins	106,000
Bear skins	2,100
Fox skins	1,500
Kitt fox skins	4,000
Otter	4,600
Musksquash skins	16,000
Martin skins	32,000
Mink skins	1,800
Lynx skins	6,000
Wolverine skins	600
Fisher skins	1,650
Raccoon skins	100

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Wolf skins	3,800
Elk skins	700
Deer skins	750
Deer skins, dressed	1,200
Buffalo robes	500

and a quantity of castorum.

Montreal was the principal depot of the company, whence the skins were shipped to England.

Beavers have become all but extinct; and the wolverine, from which the state obtains its *sobriquet*, is all but unknown in the southern peninsula.

This company finally disposed of its interest to the American Fur Company, organized by John Jacob Astor.

In 1772 a mass of native silver, now deposited in the British Museum, was found on the shore of Lake Huron, and in 1773 a company, for the purpose of working the mines, headed by the Duke of Gloucester, was chartered by the British government; but after considerable expenditure of means, the adventure was found unprofitable and abandoned. By the treaty of 1783 the territory was virtually ceded to the United States, but was still withheld, by England, from actual possession, till 1796. At this period great ignorance regarding Michigan prevailed in the East, the fur companies probably considering it to be their interest to keep out the American population as long as possible. It has been stated that the Virginian soldiers' claims, afterwards located in the Scioto valley in Ohio, were at first settled in Michigan, but changed from the current belief that this state was one vast swamp, with merely a belt of harder land around it. Less than forty years ago a map of the territory was published in New-York describing it as such. There were no roads into the interior, the only means of travel being by Indian trails, and the French population were settled upon the Detroit and St. Clair rivers, and the small streams entering into them. On the 11th of January, 1805, Michigan was erected into a separate territory by act of Congress. During 1812-13, it was again, in consequence of General Hull's surrender, for a short time once more in possession of the British. At this time cultivation was conducted to a very limited extent, and in the most antiquated modes; schools were almost unknown; commerce was limited to the immediate wants of the people; and, at this day, no perceptible influence for good remains from the early settlements. By degrees, as early as 1820, enterprising Americans began to find their way further into the interior; but it was not till about 1834 that any general immigration commenced, and from 1836 to 1840, the great bulk of the American population entered the state. They were chiefly young persons, or newly married couples, from Vermont, New-Hampshire, and other New-England states, and New-York, principally the western portion of it. In 1836 the territory was erected into a state. The energy, intelligence, education, and spirit of the earlier American settlers, have given a peculiar character to Michigan, which it still retains. It will be remembered that in 1837-8, the disastrous commercial revulsion occurred, and thousands of city mercantile men were suddenly cast from opulence into poverty; numbers of these, with their families, found their way to this state; a large portion of them became farmers; others were scattered among the rising villages; and thus, from the first, the polished manners, the educated ability, and the practised experience of our largest eastern cities were sown broadcast over the country, to produce, in the present generation, a most promising harvest. Foreigners to a very limited extent have sought this state as a home, but have passed round the lakes to Wisconsin, Iowa, and Illinois. The following table, from the census of 1850, will give a just idea of the population. The Hollanders, as well as some of the Germans, have colonized by themselves:—

TABLE OF THE NATIVITIES OF THE POPULATION OF MICHIGAN, 1850.

Maine	1,117	Virginia	1,504	Ohio	14,677
New-Hampshire	2,744	North Carolina	312	Michigan	140,648
Vermont	11,113	South Carolina	81	Indiana	2,003
Massachusetts	8,167	Georgia	68	Illinois	496
Rhode Island	1,031	Florida	12	Missouri	92
Connecticut	6,751	Alabama	19	Iowa	59
New-York	133,756	Mississippi	34	Wisconsin	332
New-Jersey	5,572	Louisiana	30	California	3
Pennsylvania	9,452	Texas	4	Territories	36
Delaware	368	Arkansas	25	England	10,620
Maryland	537	Tannessee	101	Ireland	14,430
District of Columbia	45	Kentucky	402	Scotland	2,361

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Wales	127	Russia	25	Mexico	4
Germany	10,070	Norway	110	South America	5
France	945	Denmark	13	West Indies	34
Spain	10	Sweden	16	Sandwich Islands	2
Portugal	2	Prussia	190	Other Countries	66
Belgium	112	Sardinia	2	Unknown	1,211
Holland	2,542	Greece	1	Deaf and Dumb	122
Turkey	2	China	1	Blind	122
Italy	12	Africa	3	Insane	136
Austria	21	British America	14,008	Idiots	190
Switzerland	118				

Acres improved land, (1850) 1,929,110; unimproved land in farms, 2,454,780 acres. Cash value of farms, $51,872,446; average cash value per acre, $11.83; ditto in Louisiana, $13.71.

The southern half of the state is now planted with fine farms, containing houses, out-buildings, and barns, not inferior to those of any portion of the United States; and beautiful villages of from 500 to 5,000 inhabitants, laid out and built with the taste and neatness that characterize the New-Englanders, while schools and churches everywhere abound. In the year 1850 Michigan contained 362 places of worship, being in a ratio of one church to every 1,098 souls; and the total value of church property was $723,200. This, however, does not fairly represent the church accommodation, as schoolhouses are extensively used as places of worship, where the denomination is not yet sufficiently numerous or wealthy to erect a building for itself.

The following table shows the statistics of the leading denominations in 1850:—

Name.	Number of Churches.	Total value.
Baptists	58	$84,050
Congregational	29	59,550
Episcopal	25	82,800
Methodists	103	*142,650
Presbyterians'	67	*142,650
Roman Catholics	42	159,775

Detroit is the principal city, and till of late years contained the capitol of the state. This is now located at Lansing. The population of Detroit is a little over 30,000.† It has not grown with the rapidity of many other western cities, probably in consequence of the scanty settlement of the heavy timbered country immediately around, and the unusual proportion of villages throughout the rest of the state. The Central Rail-road to Chicago (commenced by the state, but now owned by a Boston company) begins here, and will shortly connect with the Great Western Rail-road, running from Niagara Falls, through southern Canada to the Detroit River, and forming a united line from Chicago to New-York city. The chief business of Detroit is forwarding, ship-building, foundries, steam-engine shops saw-mills—the logs being procured from St. Clair and Saganaw—tanneries, together with the usual stores of a prosperous city. Some wholesale business is done, but not as much as might be expected, the communication with the East by means of the lakes and the New-York Canal and rail-roads being so easy and cheap. A rail-road also runs to Pontiac, about thirty miles N. W.; and several plank roads are completed, the longest of which is about one hundred and thirty miles. The best of these pay dividends not exceeding ten per cent. per annum on the cost, besides reserving a sinking-fund for repairs; but every year the stock is becoming more valuable. The city is lit with gas, and supplied with water by a steam apparatus owned by the corporation. The hotels are numerous in proportion to the population, and the best of them are fine buildings, bearing a high reputation. Three daily papers, two agricultural, several weekly, secular and religious, and two monthly magazines, are published here.

From the first organization of the state, peculiar and anxious attention has been paid to popular education; and perhaps no new state in the Union has greater reason to feel proud of its progress in this respect. Michigan was the first state to establish a constitutional officer, under the name of superintendent of public instruction. The system is wide and comprehensive, founded on the Prussian scheme, and may be described as follows:—A general supervising head of the department (the superintendent), a university in which education is free, governed by a president, who is appointed by a board of regents, the latter being elected by the people; branches of the university, in various parts of the state, to act as feeders, at present in abeyance; and a system of primar schools under the management of c e

* This is so in the census tables, and I do not suppose it to be a mistake. C. F.

† In 1819, 1,040; in 1824, 1,325, and 396 buildings.

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tain township officers, with a large fund sufficient to afford three months, at least, of education in the year, free of cost to the pupils. To this may be added a normal school; three departments are organized in the university, viz.:—science and arts, medicine, agricultural and mechanical art, including natural history, chemistry, &c. &c. The following statistics are brought down to December, 31, 1851.

Disbursements of the state for the University since 1837	$286,928
School Fund invested, (annually increasing from sale of lands,)	$811,000
School Districts	3,307
Children residing in do	143,222
Do. attending school	115,165
Paid to teachers, 1851	$154,469
Volumes in Township Libraries	97,158

A mill tax is annually levied to purchase books for these libraries. Both the university and primary schools own large tracts of land, the proceeds of which, as sold, are funded.

The university is located at Ann Arbor, the normal school at Ypsilanti, and both possess handsome, substantial, and convenient buildings. A good library and museum belong to the university.

Besides these, there are forty academies, theological institutions, literary societies, &c., incorporated by act of the legislature, and a number of private seminaries not so incorporated.

There exists a general plank-road law, and such roads are now made, or being made, in all directions.

There is a rail-road in the south, commencing at Toledo, O., and Monroe, Mn., both on Lake Erie, and running partly through Michigan, partly through Indiana, to Chicago. It connects with the Ohio rail-roads, and these with the New-York Southern Rail-road. It was commenced by the state, but is now owned by a New-York company. There is no finished canal in the state.

The fisheries on the Upper and Lower Lakes are of great importance, those for catching trout and white-fish* especially. The white-fish are migratory, living in Lake Erie, and in the fall of the year proceeding northwards, when they are caught, salted, and barrelled. Some twenty other species of good eatable fish frequent the lakes, and every year the pursuit of them becomes of greater commercial importance. The export, annually, of all sorts, is estimated at $300,000. A grant of land has lately been made by the federal government for the construction of a canal at the Sault Ste. Marie, to connect Lakes Huron and Superior. It is intended to be large enough for the deepest vessels, and will probably be finished in two years.

For several years the topographical corps of the United States army (at present under the command of Captain John N. Macomb) have been employed in surveying the Lakes, and have completed them to the west of Mackinaw. The maps are monuments of great skill, perseverance, and ability, and will compare well with any executed under the direction of European governments.

The following tables are taken from the state census of 1850, and Mr. Lanman's History of Michigan:

POPULATION OF MICHIGAN.

1834.	1837.	1840.	1845.	1850.
87,273	175,000	212,267	304,280	400,000

COMPARATIVE TABLE SHOWING CERTAIN RETURNS FOR 1837, 1840 AND 1849.

	1837.	1840.	1849.
Bushels of wheat	1,014,896	2,157,108	4,739,299
Do. all other grains	2,038,129	4,666,720	8,179,767
Pounds of wool	—	153,375	1,645,756
Horses	14,059	30,144	52,305
Neat Cattle	89,610	185,190	210,268
Swine	109,096	295,890	152,541
Sheep	22,684	99,618	610,563
Saw Mills	433	490	730
Flouring Mills	114	190	228

TABLE SHOWING VARIOUS STATISTICS OF MICHIGAN FOR THE YEAR 1850.

Dwelling houses	71,515
Number of families	72,560
Value of real estate	$74,968,344
Occupied farms	34,879
Cash value of do	$51,914,644
Value of farming implements	$2,748,311
Horses	57,842
Asses and mules	44
Milch cows	97,557
Working oxen	56,203
Other cattle	117,043
Sheep	756,382
Swine	202,588
Value of live stock	$7,852,550
Bushels of wheat	4,893,141
" other grains	8,197,178
Wool, pounds of	2,007,598
Value of orchard products	$130,522
Butter, pounds of	7,056,478
Cheese, do.	1,112,646
Maple sugar, do.	2,426,087
Feet of lumber sawed	301,157,500
Value of do.	$2,221,798
Value of annual products of all kinds of manufactures	$10,111,488

* Trout. *Salmo amethystes* (Mn.); white fish, *Corregonus albus* (Les). Besides these, the most valuable are, pickerel, *Lucioperca Americana;* pike, *Esox reticulatus*; muskelonge, *E. estor*; catfish, *Timelodus catus*; herring, *Hyodon tergisus*; sturgeon, *Sturio maculosus*, (growing to six or seven feet long,) and siskowit, a species of salmon. A marked peculiarity of most of the Lake fish is the quantity of *fat*, resembling that of quadrupeds, which they contain—entirely different from the salt-water fish. While their flavor differs from that of the latter, it is much more delicate and richer than that of river fish. The brook trout is found in abundance in the Lake Superior country. Eels are unknown.

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Besides these, large qantities of barrel staves and heads are annually exported, and the flour barrels and fish barrels consume a large quantity of timber, which leaves the state for ever.

The *Army Meteorological Register*, (Washington, D. C., 1851,) affords the following data regarding the climate:—

	Number of Years of observations.	Mean annual temperature.	Average mean temperature.				Highest degree.	Lowest degree.	Mean annual range.	Prevailing wind.	Prevailing weather.	Mean annual rain in inches.	Latitude.
			Winter.	Spring.	Summer.	Autumn.							
Fort Mackinac	7	40.37	20.08	36.69	61.83	43.39	90	23	97.57	W.	Fair	....	45° 51′ 00″
Sault Ste. Marie	12	39.62	17.04	37.39	61.79	42.47	98	30	114.39	N. W.	Cloudy	29.588	46° 29′ 55″
Fort Gratiot	9	46.96	25.77	43.22	67.44	49.02	96	18	103.88	S. W.	Fair	38.516	42° 51′ 00″
Detroit	4	47.36	28.69	46.32	68.44	47.98	94	5	95.00	S.	Fair	28.300	42° 19′ 18″
Dearborn Arsenal,	1	49.21	30.73	51.43	66.21	48.50	100	8	108.00	W.	Fair	21.610	42° 20′ 00″
Chicago, Ill.	4	46.18	25.56	45.06	66.96	47.16	94	22	109.00	N.	Cloudy	....	41° 50′ 00″
Fort Jesup, Louis.	12	65.81	49.79	66.94	80.84	65.32	100	8	81.58	N.	Fair	46.243	31° 30′ 00″

The climate of Michigan is hotter in summer, and averages milder in winter, than would be expected from its position. Detroit being in lat. 42° 19′ 18″, and longitude 82° 58′; but its almost insular position, and the large bodies of water which surround it, produce a marked effect. There is much less snow, and the winters are shorter and more irregular than in the same latitude in Western New-York. The western coast *appears* to have a colder climate and more snow than the eastern, probably owing to the unwooded prairies of Wisconsin, and the prevailing winter winds being west and northwest.

From an early period, a periodical rise and fall of water in the lakes has been observed. Formerly the notion prevailed that this was owing to a *tide* which ebbed and flowed each seven years; but more modern observations attribute it to "a successive series of cold and moist years, and a series of warm and dry ones, mutually following each other"; and considering that a surface of 248,755 square miles of land, besides that of the lakes, drains into the St. Lawrence, this is probably the true explanation. But correct meteorological observations have not yet been made for a sufficient length of time to decide the question.

Taken altogether, Michigan enjoys an unusually dry and agreeable climate. On the Detroit River, winter rarely sets in before the end of December, and is passed by the beginning to the end of March. Instances have occurred during the last fifteen years, when the ground could be plowed, and steamboats have passed from Detroit to Buffalo, every month in the year. The spring is the most unpleasant and changeable season. The falls are usually very beautiful, dry and cloudless. It is, however, remarked by old residents, that a decided change in the length and severity of the springs has taken place during the last half dozen years. The same belief (whether just or unjust) is entertained in New-York and Pennsylvania.

As regards health, Michigan will compare favorably with any other western state. Till very lately, the only serious diseases known were ague, generally of a mild character, and *lung fever* (bilious inflammation of lungs) in winter.

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Once or twice, congestive fever has proved epidemic in a few localities; and, occasionally, on the lake shore, *black tongue*, with other forms of erysipelas, appears in winter and spring. The diseases of the Eastern states seem, however, to be gradually creeping in; and in Detroit, we have cases of small-pox, scarlet fever, and pulmonary consumption; but all forms of disease are generally light. Apparently, consumption is complicated with disorders of the liver. All kinds of domestic animals suffer from biliary derangement, but scarcely to as great an extent as formerly.

The Michigan Southern and Northern Indiana Rail-road Companies have issued a report, says the Buffalo Courier, of the business of the road during the last six months. The Northern Indiana Road was opened for use through its entire length, June, 1852, thus furnishing, in connection with the Michigan Southern-Rail-road, a direct communication from Chicago to Lake Erie, at Monroe and Toledo. Since the first of July, the entire line has been operated as one road. The gross earnings for the six months ending December 31, were:

From passengers	$332,223 56	
Freight and mails	259,963 44	
		$592,187 00

The expenditures were:

Operating, repairs & equipment	$293,046 75	
Interest	92,653 41	
		385,700 16
Net earnings for six months		$206,486 84

The income account, on the first day of January, 1853, stood as follows:

1852—Balance of income acc't, July, 1852		$49,614 70
Gross earnings for six months, as per the preceding statement		592,187 00
		$641,801 70
Less expenses, interest, &c		385,700 16
1853—Jan. 1. Balance to credit to this account		$256,101 54
Semi-annual dividend of five per cent		124,970 52
Balance of income account		$131,131 02
Against this balance there has been charged for extraordinary expenses, incurred in forming the boat connections upon Lake Erie and Michigan during the past season		34,357 86
Leaving to credit of income account		$96,773 16

The length of roads of the companies is as follows:

Main line of the Mich. South. Road	131	244 m.
" " Northern Ind. Road	113	
Branches	71	
Total miles	315	

After deducting the cash and other property on hand, the present actual investments in the construction and equipment of the 315 miles of road is about six millions of dollars. This is less than $20,000 per mile—a cost not exceeding one-third to one-half the cost of similar works in New-York and the Eastern states.

Michigan, it is believed, was the first state to pass a homestead exemption law, and to abolish capital punishment; and among the first to relinquish the old and barbarous system of locking up debtors in prison. The first is said to have been originated by a farmer. It was ridiculed and opposed, but is now adopted by a majority of the states.

The copper mines of Lake Superior had evidently been worked very extensively in very remote periods. These ancient works are of great magnitude, and are found extending over a wide space. Mr. C. Whittlesey (*Smith's Annals of Science*, vol. 1, No. 2,) believed these miners to have been the "race of the mounds" which occupied the state of Ohio, at a very remote period, and from whom descended the Aztecs, the ancestors of the Mexicans. The present race of Indians appear to have been entirely ignorant of the art of mining, and even of the very existence of the old workings.

The copper in the present day is found in masses, some loose, weighing over six tons; in veins of various thickness; and in ores mixed with rock. The mines are generally worked by shafts, till a vein is hit, when it is followed, the copper cut out with chisels, and raised to the surface. The following table shows the condition of the mines in 1850. The amount of mineral sent to market has since largely increased, and copper smelting works have been established near Detroit. Large quantities, however, are exported to Boston and Pittsburgh.

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COPPER MINES AND MINING.

Lake Superior Companies.	Nature of Mines.	Capital.	Kinds of power used.	No. of male hands.	Quantity produced annually. Tons.	Nature of product.	Value of product.
North-west Mining Co	Copper..	$50,000..	Water ..	114..	80	..Native Copper..	$17,000
Copper Falls Mining Co	" ..	65,000..	Horse ..	30..	10	. Native Copper..	3,000
North-western Mining Co	" ..	10,000..	Hand ..	14..	—	.. — ..	—
North American Mining Co	" ..	70,000..	Steam ..	110..	85	..Native Copper..	17,000
Albion Mining Co	" ..	15,000..	Hand ..	9..	—	.. — ..	—
Cliff Mine	" ..	207,360	Steam & Horse	180..	1,028	..Native Copper..	157,000
Lac le Belle Mining Co	" ..	28,000..	Horse ..	6..	10	..Gray Ore ..	600
Iron City Mining Co	" ..	1,500..	Horse ..	15..	—	.. — ..	—
Isle Royale Mining Co	" ..	14,000..	Steam ..	19..	—	.. — ..	—
Cape Mining Co	" ..	500..	Horse ..	6..	—	.. — ..	—
Pittsburgh and Isle Royale Mining Co	" ..	18,000..	Hand ..	25..	2	..Ingot ..	760
Liskanett Mining Co	" ..	30,000..	Horse ..	25..	25	..Native Copper..	7,500
American Mining Co	" ..	3,000..	Horse ..	15..	½	..Native Copper..	100
Ontonagon Mining Co	" ..	15,000..	Hand ..	20..	—	.. — ..	—
Sistagna Mining Co	" ..	3,000..	Hand ..	10..	—	.. — ..	—
Chesapeake Mining Co	" ..	5,000..	Hand ..	10..	—	.. — ..	—
Minnesota Mining Co	" ..	29,000	Steam & Horse	80..	257	..Native Copper..	77,100
Algonquin Mining Co	" ..	2,400..	Hand .	28..	—	.. — ..	—
Ridge Mining Co	" ..	5,000..	Horse ..	16..	5	..Native Copper..	1,250
Adventure Mining Co	" ..	15,000..	Horse ..	16..	8	..Native Copper..	2,000
Forrest Mining Co	" ..	15,000..	Horse ..	30..	5	..Native Copper..	1,000
Ohio Trap Rock Mining Co	" ..	15,000..	Horse ..	10..	10	..Native Copper..	2,500
Merchant Mining Co	" ..	2,000..	Horse ..	1..	—	.. — ..	—
Total		$618,760		789..	1,525½		$386,960

IRON MINING.

Name of Company.	Capital invested.	Tons of Iron Ore.	Value raw material.	Kind motive power.	No. hands employed.	Tons Pig Iron, &c.	Value of product.
Kalamazoo Company	$14,000	1,890	$2,362	Water	10	630	$16,000
Union City Iron Company	15,000	2,700	7,000	Water	25	600	15,000*
Total	$29,000	4,590	$9,362		35	1,230	$37,000

The present condition (February, 1853) of the mines, is spoken of as highly favorable. "Cliff mine continues to produce masses of nearly pure copper of from one to eighty tons. This mine pays a net profit of about $18,000 per month. In the Hill Mine there are at present two masses of pure copper, each exposed more than twenty feet in depth, and are from six to thirty inches thick. Their length is unknown. In the Copper Fall Mine, there is a vein two and a half feet wide, one large mass, and the entire vein thoroughly filled with the native copper. In Dana Mine, the ten fathomed level produces small pieces, barrel, and stamp ore. North Western Mine is producing more mass copper than it has at any previous time, and a large amount of barrel and stamp copper. Native Copper Mine has produced several tons of small mass, barrel, and stamp copper. Isle Royale Mine, of Portage Lake, continues to produce masses from 1500 lbs. downwards. At the North West Mine they are opening and extending their work preparatory to extensive operations. Some eight or ten other mines have recently been opened on Lake Superior, mostly with New-York capital, all of which are very promising." Before many years are passed, this region will be, as regards copper and iron, what California is as regards gold.

Judging by the present, the future destiny of Michigan is ordained to be prosperous. The climate compels activity of mind and body; nature has bestowed everything that industry can require, and lying midway between the *Great West* and the Atlantic Ocean, produce and merchandise to a vast extent must pass through and round the state. We conclude with the motto of the republic: "*Si quæris peninsulam amœnam, circumspice.*"

We are indebted to the politeness of Mr. HYDE, collector of the customs at the port of Detroit, for the following statistics for the year 1852, which he caused to be prepared at our request:

* This is in addition to 100 tons of stoves, valued at $6,000.

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Imports of goods into Detroit paying duty		$109,976 08
" " free of duty, chiefly emigrants' effects		$82,823 09
Exports of domestic goods		$273,417 93
" foreign goods		$6,143 15
Tonnage from Canadian ports, entered	tons	77,222 .60
" to Canadian ports, cleared	"	78,451 .64
" internal or coastwise trade, entered	"	767,885 .64
" " cleared	"	821,114 .50
Number of American vessels cleared to Canadian ports		44
" " entered from Canadian ports		6
" foreign vessels cleared to Canadian ports		238
" " entered from Canadian ports		255
" American vessels cleared coastwise		2,119
" " entered coastwise		2,008

Tonnage belonging to the District, viz :

Of steam vessels, including propellers	tons	18,620 .00
" sail vessels	"	21,242 .80
" " under 20 tons, probably about	"	500 .00
Total tons		40,362 .80

Of sail vessels *under* twenty tons, no account is kept, and the outstanding tonnage can only be guessed at.

The register of outstanding tonnage of steam vessels exhibits a much larger amount than is given above; but many of the vessels still retained on the register are known to be lost or out of service. The *actual existing* tonnage in service is given in the above table.

Duties collected during the year 1852, $30,055 92.

Lake trade of the United States (from the *Patent Office report*, 1850-1—"*Agricul.*" p. 531.)

The following table affords a good idea of the magnitude of a portion of the internal trade of the United States. The aggregate valuation of our lake trade for the year 1850 (imports and exports) amounts to the large sum of $186,484,905; or more, by $40,000,000, than the whole foreign export trade of the country. The aggregate tonnage employed on the lakes of the United States is equal to 203,041 tons, of which 167,137 tons is American, and 35,904 tons British.

The commerce of Lakes Erie, Huron, Michigan, Ontario, Champlain, and St. Clair, is as follows:

Total Value of Exports and Imports.

Erie	$115,785,048
Huron	848,152
Michigan	24,320,481
Ontario	28,141,000
Champlain	16,750,700
St. Clair	639,524

Showing a total value of $186,484,905. To this must be added the passenger trade of the Lakes, valued at $1,000,000.

The aggregate value of the tonnage of Lake Erie is $5,308,085; of Lake Huron, $75,000; of Lake Michigan, $564,435.

ART. XI.—COMMERCIAL PROGRESS, HOME AND FOREIGN.

[The great activity which has lately been given to the iron interests, and its important results upon the construction of our public works, will recommend the following paper, which we adopt from the *Rail-road Journal*, to the attention of our readers :]

IRON TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES, PAST AND PRESENT—PROGRESS OF GOLD PRODUCTION—LINE OF STEAMERS FROM VIRGINIA TO ANTWERP—LAKE IMPORTS FOR 1852—COMMERCE OF HAVANA—THE FISHERIES— STEAMBOATS IN THE UNITED STATES—FINANCES OF THE UNITED STATES.

The most important commercial movement of the day, is probably the great and rapid advance in the market value of iron manufactures, throughout Great Britain. The improvement was so sudden, so unexpected, and has been carried on with so much vigor, that consumers in all parts of the world were un-

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prepared for the change, and have in many instances been put to serious inconvenience. It is by no means extraordinary that iron, or any other article, should command remunerating prices; but it is strange that, during such a demand as has existed for years past, both in this country and in Europe, prices should remain so much depreciated now, that when the rail-road mania has partially subsided, the value of the raw material should become so much enhanced. Nearly all the great rail-roads in this country, in the course of construction, secured the bulk of rails required before the recent rise in value. Several of these companies could have sold their contracts at handsome profits. The effect, therefore, on this side of the Atlantic, will not be so serious as it otherwise would have been. We shall not, however, be entirely exempt from the disadvantages arising from high prices. The time has arrived when we must look more closely into our estimates of expenditures in constructing rail-roads; and as the cost of iron is a very important item, it is possible the increased and increasing value of this article may tend materially to check the progress of these improvements. Rail-roads which have been built within the past four or five years, have purchased their rails in England, at prices considerably below the cost of manufacture. Roads now in course of construction, contracts for ironing which have not been made, will cost so much more to complete, that the power of competition will be very much reduced.

We annex an official statement, showing the quantity, total value, cost per ton, &c., of bar iron, manufactured by rolling, imported into the United States in each of the past eight years:—

Importations of Bar Iron, Manufactured by Rolling, into the United States.

Years.	Tons.	Value.	Av'ge Cost.	Duty.	Duties.
1844	37,891	$1,065,582	$28	$25	$947,280
1845	51,188	1,691,748	33	25	1,279,715
1846	24,108	1,127,418	47	25	602,720
1847 (5 months)	8,098	434,316	54	25	202,460
1847 (7 months)	32,085	1,695,173	53	30 p. c.	508,552
1848	81,589	3,679,598	45	30 "	1,103,879
1849	173,457	6,060,068	35	30 "	1,818,020
1850	247,951	7,397,166	30	30 "	2,319,150
1851	254,310	7,323,283	29	30 "	2,197,285

In putting down the average cost per ton in this table, we have left off the cents and put down the price nearest the fraction. The period included in this table covers nearly the full operation of two tariffs. In 1841, when the compromise act of 1832 had reached its lowest point, the aggregate value of rolled iron imported was $2,172,278—averaging $34 per ton. In the year 1846, which closed the operation of the high tariff of 1842, the value of rolled iron imported was $1,127,418—averaging $47 per ton. By going back a little further we can find a better illustration of the strength of the position we intend assuming. In 1839, when the compromise tariff of 1832 had been in operation seven years, and the per cent. of duties had become very much reduced, the value of rolled iron imported was $3,181,180—averaging $53 per ton—a higher price than ruled at any time during the operation of the high protective tariff of 1842. For seven years previous to 1839, the iron manufacturing interest of the country had been highly protected. It is true, under the act of 1832 a steady but gradual reduction was going on in the rate of duties; but the manufacturers of this country for seven years had everything in their favor, so far as an inflated paper currency and high duties were concerned; notwithstanding which, the quantity of rolled iron imported in 1839 was greater, and the average price higher, than in any previous year. This shows how much advantage to the great consuming classes of the country, protection to this or any other manufacturing interest is. It is possible that twenty or thirty years continued protection might build up the iron or any other interest so that it could successfully compete with foreigners; but we are not, or rather have not been able to do so. We have such a variety of interests to promote, such an immense extent of country to improve, so much necessity exists for opening in the shortest time all the arteries of trade, such a rapidly increasing population to protect and bind toge-

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ther, such extremes to connect, such unbounded, unlimited resources to develop, that it has been, and still is, utterly out of the question to wait the slow movement of those who require so much aid and support from the government in the shape of prohibitory duties.

Where would our great rail-road system have been had we waited for our own manufacturers to supply the iron at their own prices? And where would prices have been had there been such a duty imposed as would have prohibited the importation of a foreign article? The first would not have been developed to one quarter the extent it is at this moment; prices for the iron would have ruled so high that it would have required, at least fifty per cent. more capital to have built the roads. By checking the extension of rail-roads, and thereby preventing the opening of new channels of commerce, the progress of the country would have been materially retarded, and all the most important interests of the masses sacrificed—and for what? Merely for the purpose of filling the pockets of comparatively a limited number of iron manufacturers faster than smaller profits would. The manufacturing interest of this country, generally, is fully impressed with the belief that the only true policy for the government to pursue is to sacrifice every other interest for that.

Within the past four years we have paid $24,461,115 to foreigners, for rolled iron. We will admit that a large per cent. of this aggregate has been in rail-road iron, imported for roads constructed within that period. This iron has been purchased at prices varying from twenty-nine to forty-five dollars per ton, and a good part of it has been paid for in rail-road bonds and other first-class securities. Previous to the reduction of the tariff in 1846, our rail-road companies were paying from sixty to eighty dollars per ton for rail-road iron, both at home and abroad; and at that time the rail-road movement in the United States was very moderate compared with what it has been since. At that time the rail-road mania in Great Britain and throughout Europe was at its height, and the market prices for iron had reached very high points. This enabled our manufacturers to extort immense rates from companies then constructing roads here. Instead of turning out iron at fair remunerating prices, they took advantage of the limited supply from England, caused by the immense home demand and consumption, and realized enormous profits. This is undoubtedly all right and proper in the way of business; and viewed in that light, not a word of complaint can be uttered. But let us look at the result. Protection at home, demands abroad for consumption far in advance of the supply, with a domestic demand greater than our manufacturers could meet, enabled them to realize profits in a year or two, sufficient to return the full capital employed. Then it was all sunshine. Had there been no protection under the tariff, their profits would have still been very great. There was a harvest ready to be gathered, and the iron manufacturers gathered it. In the course of time, the rail-road mania in Great Britain and on the continent exploded. Thousands engaged in that speculation were ruined. The extensive iron manufacturing establishments created by the demand for iron rails, became idle, and a large portion of the immense amount of capital invested in them became unproductive. For a time, all was chaos and confusion. The excitement had been so intense and extended, so many had become so deeply involved, that the effect was almost universal and disastrous. A long period of stagnation followed. Many of the iron manufacturing establishments continued operations upon a more limited scale, and prices of iron became reduced to the lowest points. The demand almost entirely ceased, and nothing but the necessity of keeping in motion, to make the sacrifice as light as possible, kept any of them going. The effect of this was to place prices on the other side at such low points, that manufacturers on this side were compelled to abandon all competition, and close up their works. How long the manufacturers of England would have been able to continue this ruinous course, is a question we cannot answer; but fortunately the rail-road mania seized hold of our people, and the demand for rails rapidly increased.

Since 1847, the construction of rail-roads in the United States has exceeded all previously completed. While this interest was languishing in England, it was moving on with rapid strides in this country. This was fortunate for foreign iron manufacturers. It enabled them to work at least without loss, and the competition was so great, or rather, the

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sources of supply so numerous, that prices have, until very recently, continued much reduced. But for this we should not have made so much progress in our internal improvements. This favorable state of things has continued until lately. Within the past six months there has been a re-action in the iron market, and a very rapid rise has been realized. This has been produced by a variety of causes, the most prominent of which is the active demand for iron for the construction of vessels. It is intimated that there are at least sixty iron steamers building in Scotland, and about fifty in England. Independent of the demand for consumption in this way, the railroad movements recently made in Great Britain are calculated to strengthen the current rates for iron. Within the past few months, numerous side lines from main-trunk rail-roads have been contemplated, and all the indications are in favor of the creation of many new and extensive companies. In this country the consumption of iron is steadily and rapidly increasing. Our iron manufacturers are by no means idle. Within the past year or two, since any important modification of the tariff in favor of protection has been entirely out of the question, the iron manufacturing interest has been gradually recovering from its prostration. The recent improvement in prices for the raw material will be of immense advantage to those engaged.

The annexed comparative statement shows the advance in market value during the past six months:

Quotations for Iron in the New-York Market.

	1852. July 3, per ton.	1852. October 16, per ton.	1853. January 5, per ton.
Pig, English and Scotch	$19 *a* 19 75	$26 — *a* 27	$30 *a* 31
Bar, English refined	46 *a* 46 50	46 50 *a* 47	68 *a* 70
Bar, English common	37 *a* 37 50	44 50 *a* 45	65 *a* 68

This is enough for the present. As the season advances, and the different projects we have alluded to become matured, the demand will increase, and, as a matter of course, prices experience a much greater improvement. In the face of this favorable, and, to the iron manufacturer, encouraging state of things, with what grace and justice can the cry for more protection be kept up? The rise in prices on the other side is equal to an additional duty of full one hundred per cent. What more can be desired? The answer may be, that this enhancement of prices is not permanent—that it cannot be depended on—and it would therefore be dangerous to embark capital in establishing iron manufactories upon such a basis; that the only guarantee is in a high tariff, &c., &c. This is all very well, so far as it goes, but it is a very contracted view to take of the matter.

The world is all alive with enterprise. The production of gold in California and Australia has given such an impetus to industry, and opened so many new channels for commerce, that a legitimate demand has sprung up for all the staple articles of agriculture and manufacture far beyond anything ever before realized in the history of the world. The progress of improvement has been so rapid that the remotest corners of the universe have been opened, and the shrill whistle of the locomotive, the splashing of steamships, the white sails of our clipper-ships, have been heard and seen in places which, a few years ago, were almost beyond the limits of civilization. In the extension of commerce; in additions to the commercial marine of all the great maritime nations; in the increase and distribution of populations; in the contraction of space by rapidity of communication—in fact, in everything calculated to augment wealth, strengthen prosperity, extend civilization, and to build up a magnificent system of commercial intercourse, which will open every port and remove absurd restrictions, more progress has been made within the past five years than in any previous century. The impetus all this has given to the consumption, particularly of iron manufactures, is the direct cause of the favorable change in prices we have recorded above. The demand has overtaken the supply, and it will, without doubt, soon outstrip it. We look for a much greater appreciation in this article, and anticipate increased activity among manufacturers throughout the United States. It is a long lane that has no turn.

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We take the following paper upon the gold productions of the world from the *Economist*, edited by Mr. Kettell:—

When the gold discoveries were made, and confirmed by the actual receipt in London and New-York, of unwonted quantities of bullion from the distant regions of the earth, a rise in prices and a disturbance of the relative value to all productions, which gold for so long a period had sustained, was at once considered as certain; and most great financial agents throughout the world, prepared for that expected change in a manner so hasty as to accelerate the operation; that is to say, gold was avoided, and all other productions, including silver, sought in exchange for it. Silver was the first to rise, but it soon subsided to its ordinary relative price, and gold accumulated at the great reservoirs in large amounts. The leading points for these accumulations were the banks of New-York, of London, and of Paris. Gradually these growing reserves have promoted speculations and stimulated rising prices; a natural result of which is a flowing of other products towards those points where they command the most gold, causing thereby currents of gold to set from the points of accumulation outward towards those remote regions where raw products are produced. This is the natural mode by which the new supplies of gold will become distributed throughout the world into all the channels of circulation.

The following table shows the amounts of specie in the banks of the three great commercial and financial centres at different periods:—

Quantity of Specie, expressed in Dollars, in the Banks of New-York, London, and Paris.

	Banks of New-York.	Bank of France.	Bank of England.	Total, three Banks.	Rate of Interest in London.
December, 1848	$5,850,424	$46,588,339	$73,143,717	$125,582,480	3
" 1849	9,969,750	83.848.000	81,984,000	175,801,550	3½
" 1850	11,002,800	93,003,470	73,324,216	177,330,486	3
March, 1851	——	104,106,104	65,854,215	——	3
June, 1851	7,985,954	107,714,800	66,844,215	182,544,968	3
September, 1851	6,032,463	121,340,220	71,776,320	199,149.003	3
December, 1851	7,364,439	106,635.406	83,738,868	196,738,713	2½
March, 1852	9,716,070	114,147,046	93,648,480	217,511,596	2½
June, 1852	12,156,116	109,861,488	106,714,262	228,731,866	2
September, 1852	8,702,911	102 926.233	105,672,345	217,301.489	2
December, 1852	10,342,450	96.082,117	104.196,792	210.621,359	2
Jan'y 13, 1853	12,000,000	90,455,766	91,912,833	194,368,599	3

It will be observed that the accumulation went on step by step until midsummer of 1852, or about four months subsequent to the reduction of interest to the lowest point, 2 per cent., by the Bank of England. This accumulation was accompanied by rising prices and increased consumption of almost all raw produce, and increased disposition to export capital from the great centres to those places where with safety it could be employed to better profit.

The following is a table of current prices in London at different dates:—

Prices of certain Commodities in London.

	Feb. 28.	Dec. 4.	Jan. 22.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Ashes, United States Pots ..... cwt.	1 4 0	1 7 6	1 7 6
Cocoa, Para ..... cwt.	1 5 0	1 14 0	1 14 0
Coffee, Jamaica	2 3 0	2 8 0	2 8 0
" Brazil	1 13 6	1 15 0	1 16 0
" Cuba	2 2 0	2 6 0	2 6 0
Cotton, New-Orleans Fair ..... lbs.	0 0 5⅛	0 0 6½	0 0 6⅜
Prunes	0 1 6	0 2 2	0 1 10
Raisins, Muscatel	0 2 0	0 3 0	0 3 5
Hemp, St. P.	1 10 5	1 18 10	1 19 0
Hides, B., dry	0 0 3½	0 0 4	0 0 4
Indigo, Bengal ..... lbs.	0 2 6	0 4 6	0 4 6
Iron, British ..... bars.	5 2 0	9 5 0	10 0 0
" Pig, Wales	1 17 0	3 7 0	5 0 0
Lead, Pig, English	16 5 0	20 0 0	24 0 0
Tin, blocks, English	4 9 0	4 16 0	5 7 0
Oil, Sperm	83 0 0	86 0 0	85 0 0
" Palm	26 10 0	35 10 0	33 10 0
" Linseed	26 0 0	29 5 0	31 5 0

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		Feb. 28.			Dec. 4.			Jan. 22.		
		£	s.	d.	£	s	d.	£	s.	d.
Butter		3	12	0	4	0	0	4	10	0
Beef, United States		3	15	0	6	0	0	6	1	0
Rice, East India		0	8	0	0	10	6	0	9	0
Silk, China	lbs	0	14	6	0	16	6	0	16	6
Pepper, Black		0	0	3½	0	0	3½	0	0	3½
Rum, Jamaica		0	2	2	0	2	6	0	2	8
Tallow, S. P.		1	15	0	2	7	0	2	5	5
Tea, Congou		0	0	7	0	0	9½	0	0	10½
Timber, Riga		2	15	0	3	10	0	3	10	0
Pine, Red, Canada		2	5	0	3	10	0	3	10	0
Tobacco, Kentucky		0	0	2½	0	0	3	0	0	3
Turpentine, Spirits		1	16	0	2	9	0	2	13	6
Wool, Fleece	pack	13	0	0	16	0	0	17	10	0

Now it results that the high prices caused by accumulations of gold at financial centres, stimulated the production of all other articles, and put them in motion towards those common centres; hence the rise in freights and great activity in transportation everywhere manifest. The result of this would necessarily be a drain of gold from those centres in a more rapid ratio than ever before. Because as gold, by raising prices, put in motion every branch of production, so all these branches once in motion would react upon the gold with redoubled force, or in the proportion of the value of all other articles to gold. Thus the receipts of gold in Great Britain, by a recent report, were for the last six months of 1852, £11,146,000, say $50,000,000. At the United States Mint they were $30,000,000, and the reduction in the banks as above is $34,000,000, making together $114,000,000, from which should be deducted the quantity sent from the United States to Great Britain in that time, $7,000,000, and there remains $107,000,000, which has gone, whither? The supplies of gold in Great Britain and in the United States were, for the last six months of 1852, as follows:—

In England, from Australia	$21,475,732
In United States, from California	23,994,180
Total	$45,469,912

Of the quantity received in the United States about $7,000,000 went to England, and has thence, in discharge of the large quantities of goods purchased and consumed by England, been distributed throughout the world. As gold has become comparatively cheap in England, and left it for other countries, its export thither from the United States has gradually fallen off. The reason of this appears to be that the inflation which causes gold to leave England and Western Europe, not only checks exports to this country, but induces continued exports of those articles of produce, for which they are our best customers; that is to say, although there has been inflation here it has been greater there.

The efflux of gold from Paris has been larger than from England, reaching $24,000,000 since last June; if we look at the table of discounts by the French Bank, we shall observe how much more rapid has been paper expansion, fomenting those immense speculations of which Paris has been the theatre.

Discounts by the Bank of France.

	At Paris.	Sent to Paris from Branches.	Branches.	Total Discounts. France.
September 10	56,515,833	28,540,962	103,712,672	188,779,467
October 14	65,595,683	31,080,578	114,445,936	214,122,197
November 11	72,912,863	41,429,173	130,572,599	244,914,635
December 9	92,849,778	41,473,662	139,857,626	274,180,064
January 13	95,823,834	61,020,682	159,978,867	316,823,383

These are startling figures, showing an inflation of 90 per cent., or $8,00 ',000 since September. The New-York banks in the same time increased their discounts $3.000,000, and the Bank of England its commercial paper £1,300,000, say $5,100,000. As rapid as is the inflation in Paris, it has been greater in the provinces. The inflation there has protected New-York, but the reverse should be guarded against.

Great as has been the influx of gold into England to produce that expansion of prices, the efflux is now greater, and inasmuch as that means are now being taken to reduce the currency there, it follows that similar means must take place promptly here, or disaster follow. In raising its rate of interest to three per cent., the bank had in view the fact that its line of discounts is $15,000.000 higher than at the same time last year;

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that the discounts of the Bank of France, Jan. 13, were f.316,000,000, being an increase of f.42,000,000 on the month; and that to check the flow of gold outwardly, a great curtailment in these items must take place. The first effort of the screw was the fall of pig iron from 80s. to 60s. or 25 per cent. Now, simultaneously with the expansion in those two banks, the institutions of New-York raised their loans from sixty-four to eighty-five millions, and this enormous expansion here was sustained only by the expansion there. Hence when the London Bank increases its rate of discount from two to three per cent., and all the discount houses give notice that 1¾@2 per cent. will be the rate hereafter "at call," it is quite time for the banks here to "snug ship."

The efflux of gold is no doubt but temporary, the mere effect of going a little too fast, whereby a slight re-action is given to the progressive depreciation of gold as compared with other commodities. The impulse caused the gold to distribute itself over the continent a little faster than the mines produced it, great as that production was.

FACTS AND CONSIDERATIONS WHICH RECOMMEND THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A LINE OF STEAMERS BETWEEN VIRGINIA AND ANTWERP.

Agricultural Productions of Virginia as per Census of 1851.

Wheat	bush.	14,516,950	at	$1 00	value	$14,516,950	00
Indian Corn	"	35,538,582	"	50	"	17,769,989	00
Flax-seed	"	53,333	"	1 10	"	58,666	30
Tobacco	lbs.	66,516,492	"	6	"	3,990,989	52
Butter	"	11,126,785	"	16⅔	"	1,854,465	17
Wool	"	2,850,909	"	30	"	855,272	70
Maple Sugar	"	1,223,905	"	6	"	73,434	30
Cheese	"	434,850	"	8	"	34,788	00
Hay	tons	370,117	"	16 00	"	5,922,832	00
Hemp, dew-rotted	"	3,450	"	60 00	"	207,000	00
Do. water-rotted	"	1,149	"	100 00	"	114,900	00
Cotton	bales, 400 lbs. each	2,767	"	30 00	"	83,010	00
Wine	gallons	4,280	"	1 00	"	4,280	00
Live stock						33,667,362	00
Home manufactures						2,156,073	00
Cord wood, Oysters, Fish, Peas, Beans, Potatoes, Garden Vegetables, Fruits, and Melons, estimated at not less than						5,000,000	00
Amounting in the aggregate to						$86,249,314	00

The average difference in the market value of these productions between Virginia and New-York is, at the lowest estimate, 10 per cent. in favor of the latter. To that extent, therefore, Virginia sustains a loss upon that portion of them which is consumed without her own limits, whether by her sister states or exported abroad. This may be safely estimated as follows, viz:

Of wheat, one-half the quantity raised, value	$7,258,475 00
Of Indian corn, one-fourth	4,442,322 75
Of tobacco, two-thirds	2,660,659 68
Of cord-wood, oysters, &c., &c., one-half	2,500,000 00
These articles alone amount to	$16,861,457 43
Which, at 10 per cent., gives a loss of	$1,686,145 74

It is estimated that about four-tenths of the difference in value above mentioned arises from freight and incidental charges. Deduct that proportion, and a depreciation of 6 per cent. still remains to be accounted for. This is readily, and it is believed correctly done, by the fact that New-York, being the point at which our export and import trade are now made to meet, and where the great mass of our commercial payments are made, is thereby enabled, through her exchanges, to exert a controlling influence over our financial interests, which keeps down prices here, and raises them correspondingly there. Six per cent. estimated upon the value of our remaining productions not embraced above, viz.: $69,861,457 43, shows a further loss of

Amount brought forward	$1,686,145 74
	4,163,371 39
Which, added to the foregoing, exhibits an annual loss sustained by our citizens from this cause alone, of	$5,849,517 13

These estimates, founded upon the late census returns and such other reliable information as could be obtained, are believed to be sufficiently accurate for all practical purposes, and to fall below rather than exceed the actual loss which a more rigid statistical analysis would exhibit.

For want of any certain data by which to ascertain it, we can only approximate the amount of loss sustained upon the domestic consumption of articles brought

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mto this state from elsewhere. It is believed that of such articles we consume an amount in value fully equal to that arising from the sale of our own productions, viz: $16,861,457 43. Upon that amount the controlling influence of New-York before mentioned equally operates, and consequently produces the same depreciating effect.

We may therefore properly estimate the loss arising from this cause at	$1,686,145 74
To which may be added for profits to the Northern factors, and incidental charges, at least 12 per cent. more	2,023,374 89
Making the whole loss upon domestic consumption	3,709,520 63
Add to this amount of loss upon productions, as above	5,849,517 13
And it exhibits an aggregate annual loss of	$9,559,037 76

If the foregoing estimates are correct, they show clearly why it is that the Virginia merchants cannot, except to a very limited extent, import directly from abroad. The merchant of the North enjoys an advantage over ours of at least 12 per cent. additional profit (6 per cent. on the *export* and the same upon the *import* trade)—a per centage more than twice as large as that usually charged by the import dealer upon the cost of his goods. This gives to him an absolute control over that entire branch of trade.

The great benefits resulting to the northern merchants from our present commercial vassalage is fully appreciated by them, and hence their constant and vigilant efforts to retain it. No sooner had Virginia begun to move in this matter by the call of a convention at Old Point, for the purpose of considering the best means of promoting our own direct foreign commerce, than did those merchants commence the construction of five first-class steamers to ply between their port and ours. This could only have been done to prevent the achievement of our commercial independence, and secure to themselves the continued enjoyment of their present monopoly.

But this is not all. Within the last two weeks, citizens of New-York, no doubt stimulated by the apprehension of the passage of the bill for establishing a line of steamers between the waters of Virginia and Antwerp, reported to the senate by the select committee, and its ultimate effect in opening and promoting our direct trade, have applied to Congress for aid in the construction of a line of steamers between that city and some port in Belgium. Not content with the monopoly of nearly all the existing lines of our foreign commerce, that *grasping city* seeks with eager haste to pounce upon and appropriate to her own exclusive benefit, or to break down by opposition, every new line sought out and suggested by the enterprise of others.

For want of the necessary statistics, nothing is said about our loss upon the value of the mineral productions of Virginia, which, it is believed, amounts to several millions more.

Will Virginia continue to remain passive, and rest satisfied with the present ruinous course of her trade, without an effort to change and improve it? Great as are her resources, can she sustain so heavy a drain as from ten to twelve millions of dollars depreciation in the value of her productions every year?—a sum more than sufficient in three years to pay off her whole debt, and perfect all the great lines of internal improvement necessary to develop her own resources, and invite the commerce of other states through her borders.

The bill above mentioned proposes to stop that drain without either charge or risk to the commonwealth or her citizens. Will she not avail herself of the opportunity thus afforded to accomplish an object so imperiously demanded by the best interests of her citizens? Before another so favorable can ever be presented for her acceptance, New-York will have stepped in, pre-occupied the line, and secured to herself forever all its benefits.

At the present time, nearly all of the mails of continental Europe pass through England and on to New-York. The direction of trade ever follows the line of postal communication, and for that reason mainly is it that the trade between this country and Europe now centres at New-York. Let a direct communication by steamers be established between Norfolk and Antwerp, and we shall at once secure the whole of that portion of the continental mails which come through Belgium, embrac-

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ing a population of more than one hundred millions, and sweeping over a territory containing some of the finest agricultural and manufacturing districts in Europe. And besides, in a short time we shall obtain a good share of the residue, for the following reasons: 1st. The inward voyage from Liverpool to Norfolk is from eighteen to thirty hours shorter than it is to New-York. One day will be thus saved. 2d. Another day will be saved in escaping the detention incident to the transit through England. The saving of two days in the transmission of intelligence, at an era when time enters so largely into the computation of all business operations, would of itself be controlling. But when we add to this, 3dly, the further saving of the onerous charges now imposed by England upon the transit postage through that kingdom, it can hardly be doubted that the Virginia and Antwerp line will in a few years after its establishment transport the largest portion of the mails between Europe and this country. When this is done, trade will necessarily follow, and the great seaport of Virginia, being the centre of commercial intelligence, must become also the centre of commerce itself. No longer dependent upon New-York, Virginia will then be the recipient of the benefits of exchange and other commercial profits, instead of paying them to others, as she now does to the amount of nearly twelve millions of dollars per annum.

LAKE IMPORTS FOR 1852.—The following table, says the Buffalo Commercial Advertiser, will show the imports at that port by the lake for the season of 1852, and also, for the seasons of 1850 and 1851. It will be seen that there has been a handsome increase of most articles, some being nearly, or quite double former seasons. The value of imports this season over last exceeds $13,000,000.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Flour.....bbls.	1,096,183..	1,261,301..	1,299,513
Pork	40,005..	33,261..	60,669
Beef.....	81,301..	70,570..	76,679
Whisky	30,713..	65,232..	79,306
Corn Meal.....	9,990..	2,287..	5,099
Seed	11,830..	11,146..	31,559
Eggs	5,614..	12,818..	7,686
Fish	9,994 .	6,367..	6,814
Oil	5,045..	6,718..	7,577
Cranberries	918..	1,509..	1,176
Ashes.....cks.	17,339..	13,721..	14,522
Wheat ....bush.	3,608,261..	4,260,004..	5,549,778
Corn	2,521,149..	6,080,330..	5,136,746
Oats.....	340,462..	1,149,783..	2,506,231
Rye	42..	19,435..	112,271
Barley	3,237..	166,188..	497,913
Butter.....lbs.	5,365,708..	2,354,277..	3,989,917
Lead	3,936,500..	4,961,240..	7,164,672
Tallow.....	1,943,600..	728,100..	1,004,686
Bacon	7,396,604..	6,541,400..	8,796,590
Wool.....bales.	51,604..	61,823..	45,172
Hemp	1,066..	2,139..	3,598
Cotton	472..	310..	77
Flax	112..	375..	789
Broom Corn.....	7,840..	5,402..	5,420
Leather. ...rolls.	7,795..	8,628..	7,155
Hides.....No.	73,358..	50,866..	95,458
Copper. ...tons.	54..	665..	439
Iron.....	3,038..	2,542..	4,848
Coal.....	11,436..	17,281..	34,665
Lead .....pigs	18,102..	26,983..	31,916
Tobacco ...hhds.	524..	1,707..	6,620
Lumber.....feet.	47,416,744..	84,066,589..	72,337,255
Staves .....No.	18,652,890..	10,696,006..	12,998,614
Live Hogs.....	—— ..	97,697..	111,223
Sheep	—— ..	18,906..	16,590
Cattle	—— ..	8,594..	15,926
Horses	—— ..	2,761..	1,643
Buffalo Robes..bales	—— ..	3,246..	80

COMMERCE OF HAVANA.—The Diario de la Marina, of the 1st inst, contains full tabular statements of the commerce of Havana for the year 1852, and, also, comparative statements for several preceding years. The products of the island registered for exportation at Havana, for twelve years, are as follows:

Years.	Sugar. Bxs.	Coffee. Arrobas.	Molasses. Hhds.	Honey. Tcs.
1852	688,747	158,496	39,515	2,114
1851	849,018	150,253	44,539	5,108
1850	704,777	170,902	28,615	2,156
1849	666,463	509,044	34,413	1,939
1848	686,083	132,172	25,934	1,707
1847	661,766	346,390	32,765	1,425
1846	515,900	236,946	26,679	1,887
1845	267,595	170,466	20,075	847
1844	534,582	579,248	35,812	1,963
1843	461,307	773,043	35,711	2,198
1842	427,947	1,081,468	37,459	2,643
1841	346,890	742,570	42,909	1,984

In addition to the above, there were registered during the twelve years, 1,911,340 M cigars, and 27,113,473 lbs. of tobacco—for 1852, 175,559 M of the former, and 3,172,577 lbs. of the latter.

Of the exports for 1852, the United States took 196,485 boxes of sugar, 66,548 arrobas of coffee, 36,712 hhds. molasses, 143 tierces honey, 345 arrobas of wax, 391 pipes rum, 731,125 M cigars, and 841,160 lbs. tobacco.

The entrances and clearances for 1851 and 1852 were as follows:

1851, entered	1,934	vessels,	of these	623	Spanish.
1852, "	1,758	"	"	661	"
1851, cleared	1,865	"	"	615	"
1852, "	1,789	"	"	699	"

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THE FISHERIES.—We give below some interesting statistics relative to the fisheries, which are taken from the invaluable forthcoming work of Hon. Lorenzo Sabine, referred to in the annual report of the Secretary of the Treasury:

Statistics of the Fisheries of the United States in 1840—General View, showing the Produce, Men, and Capital Employed in each State and Territory.

States and Territories.	Smoked or Dry Fish. Qtls.	Pickled Fish. Bbls.	Spermaceti Oil. Gals.	Whale and other Oils. Gals.
Maine	279,156	54,071	1,024	117,807
New-Hampshire	28,257	1,714	—	15,234
Massachusetts	389,715	124,755	3,630,972	3,364,725
Rhode Island	4,034	2,908	487,268	633,860
Connecticut	1,384	6,598	183,207	1,909,047
Vermont	—	—	—	—
New-York	5	22,224	400,251	1,269,541
New-Jersey	—	1,134	12,000	80,000
Pennsylvania	—	2,012	—	—
Delaware	—	28,009	49,704	142,575
Maryland	—	71,292	—	—
Virginia	—	30,315	262	—
North Carolina	2,375	73,350	—	2,397
South Carolina	—	425	—	—
Georgia	—	14	—	—
Alabama	2	—	—	—
Mississippi	9	—	—	—
Louisiana	—	—	—	—
Tennessee	—	97	—	—
Kentucky	—	—	—	—
Ohio	—	3,506	—	14
Indiana	—	14	—	—
Illinois	—	1	—	28
Missouri	—	—	—	—
Arkansas	—	—	—	—
Michigan	—	16,335	—	60
Florida	69,000	73	—	—
Wisconsin	—	9,021	—	1,500
Iowa	—	—	—	—
District of Columbia	—	24,300	—	—
Total	773,947	472,359	4,764,908	7,536,778

States and Territories.	Value Whalebone and other product of the Fisheries.	No. of Men employed.	Capital Invested.
Maine	$2,351	3,610	$526,967
New-Hampshire	....	399	59,680
Massachusetts	442,974	16,000	11,725,850
Rhode Island	45,523	1,160	1,077,157
Connecticut	157,592	2,215	1,301,640
Vermont	—	—	—
New-York	344,665	1,228	949,250
New-Jersey	74,000	179	93,275
Pennsylvania	15,240	58	16,460
Delaware	7,987	165	170,000
Maryland	12,167	7,814	88,947
Virginia	4,150	556	28,383
North Carolina	23,800	1,784	213,502
South Carolina	—	53	1,617
Georgia	—	6	—
Alabama	—	—	—
Mississippi	—	—	—
Louisiana	—	—	—
Tennessee	—	7	242
Kentucky	—	—	—
Ohio	—	165	12,210
Indiana	1,150	—	—
Illinois	—	—	—
Missouri	—	—	—
Arkansas	—	—	—
Michigan	—	453	28,640
Florida	6,000	67	10,000
Wisconsin	155	138	61,300
Iowa	—	—	—
District Columbia,	15,500	527	64,500
	$1,153,234	36,584	$16,429,620

STATISTICS *of the Codfishery of the United States during the years* 1849, 1850, 1851:

Year.	Tonnage.	Imports of Salt. Bushels.	Exports. Quintals.	Exports. Value.
1849	81,695	11,622,163	197,457	$419,092 00
1850	93,706	11,224,185	168,600	365,349 00
1851*	95,616	8,681,176	151,088	367,729 00

The following statistics show how much these fisheries have fallen off. The value of exports of codfish was:

1804	$2,400,000
1817	203,000
1823	734,024
1824	873,685
1832	749,909
1839	709,218
1843	381,175
1845	803,353

Statistics of the Mackerel Fishery of the United States.

Year.	Tonnage employed.	Mackerel Inspected. In Mass. bbls.	In N. H. bbls.	In Maine. bbls.
1833	48,725	212,946	19,375	—
1834	—	252,884	18,200	40,661
1835	—	194,450	15,300	—

* The tonnage in 1851 was divided as follows, viz.:—Maine, 45,528; New-Hampshire, 1,916; Massachusetts, 39,982; Rhode Island, 376; Connecticut, 6,785; New-York, 1,034.

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Year.	Tonnage employed.	Mackerel Inspected—In Mass. bbls.	In N. H. bbls.	In Maine. bbls.
1836	—	176,931	9,450	25,228
1837	46,811	138,157	5,225	22,460
1839	—	73,018	700	—
1840	28,269	50,982	630	—
1841	11,321	55,537	1,100	—
1844	16,170	86,181	1,240	—
1845	21,413	202,302	1,075	—
1846	36,463	174,064	1,369	—
1847	31,451	232,581	2,008	—
1848	43,558	300,130	2,400	—
1849	42,942	231,856	2,867	—
1850	58,112	—	3,125	—
1851	*50,539	329,245	3,073	31,472
1852	—	—	2,140	—

STEAMBOATS IN THE UNITED STATES.—We are indebted to A. Guthrie, Esq., steamboat inspector, for the following list of steamboats in the United States.

The list shows that the western cities have the largest number—St. Louis taking the lead, and Cincinnati next in the figures. The eastern cities, however, exceed in the proportion of tonnage, as New-York, with ninety-two boats, gives a tonnage of 64,447 tons, while St. Louis, with 126 boats, only gives 30,948 tons.

Most of the western boats are high pressure, while the eastern are low pressure.

Places.	No. of boats.	Tonnage.	No. high pressure.	No. low pressure.
Cincinnati	104	24,109	104	—
Wheeling	38	6,843	38	—
Pittsburg	101	16,384	101	—
Eastport	5	1,298	—	5
Bangor	5	1,660	1	4
Bath	9	1,494	4	5
Portland	3	1,247	—	3
Nantucket	2	479	—	2
Boston	8	1,018	4	4
Fall River	6	4,769	6	—
Barnstable	1	240	1	—
Bristol	1	149	—	1
Newport	1	255	1	—
Providence	1	245	—	1
Stonington	1	67	—	1
New-London	9	3,945	3	6
Middletown	13	2,072	11	2
New-York	92	64,447	10	82
New-Haven	2	806	—	2
Sag Harbor	1	128	—	1
Newark	3	1,005	—	3
Amboy	17	5,440	3	14
Burlington	11	2,781	5	6
Wilmington	11	2,681	1	10
Philadelphia	60	10,356	24	26
Baltimore	34	9,387	10	24
Norfolk	8	936	3	5
Plymouth	1	86	—	1
Washington	2	99	1	1
Newbern	4	167	4	—
St. Mark's	1	45	1	—
Johnsville	1	55	—	1
Rubwood	6	1,352	—	6
Pilesbury	1	79	—	1
Wilmington	15	30,014	10	5
Alexandria	2	268	—	2
Charleston	11	4,096	4	7

* Maine, 9,858; New-Hampshire, 481; Massachusetts, 39,416; Rhode Island, 190; Connecticut, 594. Total, 50,539.

Places.	No. of boats.	Tonnage.	No. high pressure.	No. low pressure.
Savannah	27	5,750	12	15
Mobile	78	13,146	78	—
Galveston	10	1,588	10	—
Brazos	5	677	5	—
Pensacola	1	98	—	1
Camden	10	2,000	—	10
San Francisco	50	34,986	3	47
Dis. of Vermont	11	3,439	4	7
Champlain	6	941	4	2
Oswegatchie	3	1,985	3	—
Oswego	9	3,537	5	4
Genesee	2	495	—	2
Buffalo	41	25,925	34	7
Presque Isle	7	5,590	3	4
Cuyahoga	13	6,417	13	—
Sandusky	1	73	1	—
Maumee	5	1,745	4	1
Detroit	44	16,179	23	21
Mackinac	12	1,746	12	—
Chicago	4	650	4	—
St. Louis	126	30,048	126	—
Vicksburg	4	687	4	—
New-Orleans	111	34.336	111	—
Nashville	18	3,578	18	—
Louisville	26	14.529	26	—
Total	1,205	391,557	853	352

The number given in the above table to the city of New-York is only ninety-two, which is a very small figure if we take in the numerous ferry-boats and tow-boats that ply about the bay and rivers adjacent to the city. With these added, the aggregate would amount to one hundred and fifty at least.

MR. FABENS lately delivered a lecture upon French Cayenne, in which he said—Cayenne presents itself at this time in a peculiar aspect, as being the asylum of political convicts and exiles, and the theatre whereon the great and thrilling drama of emancipation has been enacted, and as offering a field for mercantile enterprise. People, generally speaking, are almost ignorant of even its geographical locality; and no wonder, for very often the newspapers publish accounts which are incorrect and misleading. He would present a few observations on its physical aspect, and then proceed to glance at its commercial and social condition. In accordance with this programme, the lecturer described the geography of the colony, and, regarding its physical aspect, remarked, that in scattered portions of the coast are deep tracts of country of low level surface, covered with thick bushes. This solid mass of vegetable life strikes the beholder at first as an army of intruders on a foreign domain. That the soft mud, in which these bushes have taken root, has been thrown up by the sea, there cannot be a doubt. Shells of oysters, and even the anchor of a ship have been

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discovered two leagues from the ocean, evidently showing that the ocean has made incursions. So long as this mud continues soft it tends to break the force of the ocean rolls; but there are times when it becomes hard, and the sea rushes through with terrific and destructive violence. Regarding the climate of Cayenne, Mr. Fabens said, that so far from its being unhealthy, as is generally supposed, it was decidedly a healthy place. In and about the town of Cayenne the air is bracing and salubrious. That the seamen of our merchant ships have suffered from diseases must be admitted; but at the same time it ought to be remembered, that that class of men are proverbial for careless and intemperate habits. The seasons are divided into the rainy and the dry. The former commences in November and continues seven months. During this rainy season the water falls in immense masses for days together. The temperature varies very little, and the prevailing winds are from the north and northeast. It is also a fact that Cayenne is generally free from pestilences, and even earthquakes have not left their mark, though they have been sometimes slightly heard. In a commercial sense, Cayenne presents many advantages. To the early French colonists it presented a forbidding aspect; but they resolutely set their shoulders to the wheel, and soon produced a change, for the graceful cotton was seen in full bloom, and the spices of the east lent a fragrance to the air; tamarind and palm trees grew up as if by magic, and the dark forests were made to yield the most valuable woods. Since then, emancipation has swept over the land and blighted the once fair prospect. However, the country still presents a fine field for commerce. Among the various commodities of the country, the sugar-cane occupies the first rank. This product is raised principally on table lands, though ruins are still to be seen on the slopes. The average production does not exceed 7,000 pounds to the acre. The process of cultivation is highly interesting.—Many estates have been abandoned, and the quantity exported may be set down at zero. The clove tree was transplanted to Cayenne, where it has since been cultivated with success. It flourishes best on mountain sides, and is laid out in alleys of twenty feet, and the cloves grow in bunches on the branches of the trees, and present a fine prospect. It is picked by hand by means of double ladders, and exposed in the sun, where it becomes browned. It requires but little outlay of capital, and growing in healthy localities, and requiring only a small amount of labor, can be worked by whites. Mr. Fabens then entered into the particulars of other productions, and showed how their cultivation had declined since the emancipation of the blacks. Such is the richness of the soil and the beauty of the climate, that even a negro has only occasion to work one day in fifteen to produce food enough for his family. The fruits, particularly, are abundant, and the bays and rivers abound with fish, and the forests with game. The forests would make the fortune of the man who would enter on a timber speculation, for the production is great, and the means of transportation easy. The delightful climate of Cayenne makes it a pleasant place of residence, and its wonderful exemptions from storms and earthquakes make it a convenient stopping place for whalers and homeward-bound Indiamen wanting supplies. Mr. Fabens then entered on the history of Cayenne, and remarked that when, in 1791, the Assembly of France proclaimed throughout the colonies the dictum that all men were free, the colonists were completely perplexed, but at length compromised matters with their negroes by merely informing them they were free, and then making them work harder than ever. Nevertheless, the colony was in an unsettled state; and in 1800 the planters set vigorously to work to frighten the blacks into obedience. After the overthrow of Louis Philippe, the blacks were emancipated suddenly in Cayenne, as well as in the other French colonies. Coming as it did at first in the form of a declaration, blasting all the planter's prospects, it was indeed a bitter pill; and when the official decree arrived, ordering emancipation to take place within two months, the planters anticipated it by freeing their negroes at once. A state of terror existed among the colonists, and the military and police were kept continually on the *qui vive*. The institution of universal suffrage being applied to the blacks, produced laughable farces, for many had no names, and the christening scenes were ludicrous in the extreme; but on the day of voting the confusion was awful.

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The result of these political measures is to be seen now in the colony, which has crowded jails and grog-shops, and presents many a scene of awful destitution. Desolation has succeeded to prosperity. The colonists had feared that emancipation would be followed by an insurrection of the blacks; but the real mischief has shown itself in the ruin caused by the laziness of the negroes. Slavery ostensibly existed before, but now we see that the blacks are slaves to their own brutal and degrading passions. After a few further remarks, Mr. Fabens concluded by making a few general observations on the colony of Cayenne and its relations to the mother country, and hinted at the propriety of the United States protesting against the uprearing of a penal colony, which will scatter a stream of vice through her cities.

FINANCES OF THE UNITED STATES.

TABLES ACCOMPANYING THE ANNUAL REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY.

Statement of Duties and Revenues during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1852:

The receipts into the treasury during the fiscal year, ending June 1st, were:

FROM CUSTOMS, VIZ:

During the quarter ending September 30, 1851		$14,754,909 34
During the quarter ending December 31, 1851		9,601,500 40
During the quarter ending March 31 1852		12,109,761 80
During the quarter ending June 3, 1852		10,873,146 08
Total		$47,339 326 62
From sales of public lands	$2,043,339 58	
Miscellaneous and incidental sources, including military contributions in Mexico	345,820 69	
Total receipts exclusive of loans.		49,728,366 69
Balance in Treasury, July 1, 1851		10,911,645 68
Total means		$60,640.032 57

The expenditures during the fiscal year, exclusive of trust funds, were:

Civil list, legislative, executive, judiciary		$3,422,939 29
Foreign intercourse		4,132,671 45
Miscellaneous		9,824,158 02
Under direction of Interior Department		5,198,828 94
Under direction of War Department.		8,925,246 92
Under direction of Navy Department.		8,928,236 05
Expenditures on public debt, including interest, Texas stock, redemption of loans, commissions on purchase of stock, reimbursement of Treasury notes, &c.		6,275,815 53
Total expenditures		$46,007,896 20
Balance in Treasury, July 1st, 1852		14,632,136 37

Statement of duties, revenues, and public expenditures, for the first quarter of the fiscal year, from July 1 to September 30, 1852, agreeably to warrants issued, exclusive of trust funds and treasury notes funded:

RECEIPTS.

From customs	$15,723,935 71
From sales of public lands	415,945 91
From miscellaneous and incidental sources	191,200 10
	$16,331,081 72

EXPENDITURES.

Civil list, miscellaneous and foreign intercourse		$3,993,086 71
Expense of collecting the revenues from customs		556,411 09
Expense of collecting from lands		34,469 80
Indian Department	$1,918,185 56	
Pensions	887,571 38	
		2,805,756 94
Army proper, &c	$2,669,662 23	
Fortifications, ordnance., arming militia, &c	216,787 04	
		2,886,449 27
Navy		2,868,760 51
Paying the old public debt.	216 09	
Interest on Treasury notes	43 42	
Redemption of stock of the loan of 1843	300,000 00	
Reimbursement of Treasury notes, per act of 1847, paid in specie	50 00	
	$300,309 51	
From which deduct repayments on acct. of interest on public debt	4,656 14	
		295,653 37
		$13,440,587 69

Statement of the Public Debt on the 1st Jan., 1853.

Of the old funded and unfunded debt, payable on presentation		$114,573 40
Treasury notes outstanding, fundable or payable on presentation		121,161 64
Debt of the corporate cities of the District of Columbia, assumed per act of the 20th May, 1836—$60,000 payable annually		780,000 00
LOANS.		
Six per cent. of 1842, redeemable December 31, 1862	$8,198,686 03	
Five per cent. of 1843, redeemable July 1, 1863	4,526,531 35	
Six per cent. of 1846. redeemable November 12, 1856	4,999,139 71	
Six per cent. of 1847, redeemable January 1, 1868	25,656,600 00	
Six per cent. of 1848, redeemable July 1, 1868	15,735,000 00	
Five per cent. Texan indemnity, redeemable Jan. 1, 1865	5,000,000 00	64,115,957 09
		$65,131,692 13
Amount of the public debt on the 20th Nov., 1851, as per Report on the Finances of the 6th Jan., 1852		62,560,395 26
ADD		
On account of the Tax Indemnity, per act of Sept. 9, 1850		5,000,000 00
		$67,560,395 26

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Statement of Public Debt continued.

Amount of public debt, 20th Nov., 1851		67,560,395 26	
DEDUCT PAYMENTS.			
On account of the old funded and unfunded debt	$2,143 39		
On account of city debts assumed	60,000 00		
On account of treasury notes paid in money	50 00		
Brought forward			$67,560,395 26
STOCKS PURCHASED.			
Of the five per cent loan of 1843		1,711,400 00	
Of the six per cent. loan of 1846		9 74	
Of the six per cent. loan of 1847		650,000 00	
Of the six per cent. loan of 1848		5,000 00	2,428,703 13
As above			$65,131,692 13

ART. XII.—AGRICULTURAL ITEMS AND STATISTICS, ETC.

[The Hon. Mr. Moore, of Louisiana, in answer to a charge lately made in Congress against the sugar culturists, that they were a band of millionaire capitalists, whose interests were opposed to that of the laboring classes, set out many facts and statistics, from which we extract the following :—]

SUGAR CULTURE OF LOUISIANA—AGRICULTURAL PROSPECTS OF GEORGIA—SEA-ISLAND COTTON OF FLORIDA—MONTGOMERY PLANTERS' CONVENTION—HISTORY OF THE COTTON GIN, ETC.

1st. There are no millionaires and few capitalists among sugar planters; the latter generally understand their own interest too well to embark in so uncertain and precarious a business.

2d. The interest of the sugar planter is not opposed to the interest of the laboring classes; on the contrary, as I shall, I think, be able to demonstrate.

When I speak of capitalists, I mean men who wield cash capital. I do not pretend to say that there is no capital invested in sugar plantations. The aggregate capital is very large, consisting, first, of the plantations previously employed in the cultivation of rice and cotton, changed to the culture of sugar-cane, for reasons hereinafter stated; second, of the steam-engines, sugar-mills, kettles, &c., &c., necessary to manufacture the cane into sugar, chiefly obtained from Ohio, Kentucky, Tennessee, Virginia, and New-York, which, at a fair estimate, must have cost at least $16,500,000, nearly all originally borrowed, and a considerable portion of which yet remains unpaid.

My friend [Mr. Meade] said that "*in his opinion, for every dollar pocketed by the capitalist, about one cent goes into that of the laborer.*" Now, I beg leave to assure the gentleman and the House, that whatever may be the case in other branches of business, it will not apply to sugar planters in Louisiana; almost the very reverse is the fact, as I will show by a simple statement of facts.

I am guardian to a minor who owns part of a sugar plantation in partnership with others. One of the owners, who manages the concerns of the partnership, is a capable, attentive, and discreet person. The accounts are settled annually, and dividends of the profits, if any, made on making the settlement. For the crop of 1851, it was found that nearly the whole net proceeds of the crop had been expended in procuring the necessary supplies for the plantation, leaving but about five cents in the dollar to the proprietors for their own attention, industry, and interest on the capital invested. The balance went to labor, about in the following proportion, viz.: twenty per cent. to the manager, sugar-boiler, engineer, carpenters, bricklayers, coopers, and other laborers; five per cent. to physicians and others; twenty per cent. for pork, flour, and other provisions, principally from the State of Ohio. The balance was paid for clothing, hats, shoes, axes, hoes, plows, &c., principally from the eastern states; sugar-kettles, grate-bars, &c., as repairs, from Tennessee; hoop-poles from Kentucky; horses and mules from Missouri; wagons and carts from Wheeling, Virginia, &c.; together with the cost of transporting those supplies to the plantation. This, too, was exclusive of the freight, insurance, and charges on the sugar and molasses to market, deducted from the sales by the factors before rendering the accounts on which our settlement was made. The freight alone amounted to about $2,300, paid principally to vessels owned in the New-England states.

It will be perceived by this statement

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that about twenty-five per cent. went to labor in Louisiana, and about seventy per cent. to labor in other states, over and above the freight and charges of the crop to market.

It is true, that the season of 1851-'52 was rather unprofitable; for, although the production was an average crop, the quality was inferior, and the prices low. Better results are anticipated from the crop of 1852.

Upon the subject of the *agricultural prospects of Georgia*, we find a paper in the *Savannah Republican* which gives a very flattering view. The editor says:

"We had the pleasure, some days ago, of meeting an intelligent agriculturist from the North, now on a tour through the Southern States. He comes for the purpose of informing himself of the condition and prospects of southern agriculture, and not to meddle in any way with our institutions. A few years ago he visited England and Europe for a similar object. The subjoined extract of a private letter from Columbus to a friend in this city, embodies some of his impressions in regard to Western Georgia:

"'Though the soil of Western Georgia, to a northern man, observing superficially, seems poor and unpromising, the stubble of the corn and other evidences show it to be greatly productive, and that the crops of the last year at least were heavy and profitable. The roads, which have been almost impassable from the heavy rains early in January, are now nearly dry, and cotton is moving rapidly to market. At least two hundred wagons must have entered Columbus to-day. The country is evidently prospering and improving. Every where I observe a great deal of land being cleared and preparing for the coming season. A great many new houses, stables, and negro settlements are building, and I have seen several new churches in the woods. Extensive hill-side ditching and swamp draining is going on, and I have noticed *guano* in the returning cotton wagons. The country people with whom I have conversed, are the most busy, hopeful, and ambitious that I have seen at the South.

"'There is one agricultural operation that will, I think, eventually add much to the wealth of Georgia, which seems not yet to have been thought of. There are frequent water courses, and the sandy soil is exactly of the character best adapted for irrigation. I have little doubt that forage crops could be made in water-meadows in this soil and climate more profitable than cotton. Five tons of hay would be a small crop to expect from a water-meadow. It would not cost five dollars a ton to cut and make it. You now, in Savannah, send to the North and pay thirty dollars a ton for it.'"

A pretty general acquaintance in the greater part of Georgia, leads us to believe that her agricultural prospects are better at this time than they have ever been. The State Agricultural Society, the many similar associations in the several counties, the introduction of rail-roads, and the general spirit of improvement in all departments of industry, have had a most beneficial influence. The lands in Georgia yield more now than ever heretofore—not that they are more productive, but on account of improved processes of culture which have been introduced. In the early settlement of the state, it was the custom of farmers to make the most they could out of their lands in the shortest possible time, and when they were exhausted, to abandon them and go further west. In this way, the lands were soon worn out, and Georgia became an old-looking state, before she had attained to her threescore years and ten.

A more judicious system, however, has been adopted within the past fifteen years. The lands thus exhausted and abandoned have been bought up in large quantities by wealthy planters, who have the means to rest and improve them. While cultivating the richer lands, they devote much of their attention to restoring the poorer descriptions—and thus, within the past few years, lands which were abandoned as worthless, have been made to yield abundant crops.

In the mean time, other improvements have been made. More substantial and elegant country residences have been put up; churches and schools have been multiplied, and the comforts and conveniences of life have been increased. In times past, the farmer was content with any kind of a house, so it afforded him shelter from the weather. Now there is a disposition in many parts of the state to build up homesteads, in the English sense of the word. He has ceased to turn his face to the west, and has come

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to regard Georgia as his abiding place. The result of all this is, our people have become attached to the soil, and consequently they are now improving their farms, embellishing their homes, laying off pleasure grounds, planting orchards, and establishing homesteads to be handed down and kept in their families.

Altogether, the prospects of the state are highly encouraging. Great as our advancement has been in material wealth, it has been at least equaled by the improvement which has been going on in the social and physical condition of the people.

We spoke a good deal in our last number, of the position, history, and prosperity of Florida. The following, upon the subject of *the culture of Sea Island Cotton* there, may very well be appended:—

The high price of long staple cotton, and the peculiar adaptation of the soil and climate of East Florida to its successful cultivation, are attracting the attention of the cotton-planters of the neighboring states, and numbers are arriving on every steamer from Georgia, South Carolina and Alabama, in quest of cotton lands.

No culture in the world can be more remunerative than that of the Sea Island on the rich hommocks of East Florida, at forty to fifty cents per pound, which is about the average price the cotton shipped from the St. John's the present season has brought in the Savannah and Charleston markets. It is calculated that Sea Island cotton ought to bring double the price of the short staple, to compensate for the great trouble of ginning and preparing it for market, and the less quantity produced per acre—so that when short staple brings ten cents, long staple ought to bring twenty cents, to be equally remunerative. But when short staple pays well at the present prices of nine to ten cents, the production of Sea Island must be "coining," when, instead of twice, it brings more than four times as much—or forty to forty-six cents per pound.

There is no probability that cotton of either description will be lower than at present for many years to come—on the contrary, there is every reason to believe, that the prices will range higher, and that the increased production can scarcely keep pace with the increasing demand. This is the general impression of far-seeing observers in Europe as well as this country. The intelligent London correspondent of the *National Intelligencer* remarks, that the "rapidly increasing consumption of this article in the United States, the improving condition of the social relations of Europe, and the augmenting wealth of Great Britain, and her Oriental and Australian empire, combine to indicate that consumption in the aggregate must continue to increase, and occasion serious considerations to all connected with the cotton trade, respecting the *future supplies* of the raw material. The *Economist* estimates the consumption of cotton for the year 1852, as follows:—

	Bales.
Great Britain	2,039,751
France and remainder of Continent	1,319,637
United States	603,000
Total	3,962,388

The stock of cotton in the ports of Great Britain, at the close of 1851, was 494,000 bales; it is expected to be considerably less at the close of the present year."

But the vastly increasing demand for the long staple cotton, now used exclusively for all the finer fabrics, and the limited extent of territory on which the best quality can be successfully cultivated, will advance and maintain it at a much higher rate than the present. But even at present prices, this culture is immensely profitable, and will soon bring all our best lands in East Florida into cultivation. These lands are advancing in price as well on account of their intrinsic value as their limited extent. Their facility of access to the Charleston and Savannah markets add greatly to their value; the land carriage to the navigable waters of the St. John's, in no instance exceeds twenty miles, and for the greater portion is much less.

The durability of the hommock lands of Alachua, Marion, Levy, Hernando, and Hillsborough counties, has been as well tested as their fertility, many of them having been for twenty or twenty-five years in successive cultivation, without exhibiting any appreciable falling off in their productiveness. The causes of this extraordinary fertility and durability of land, from whose appearance, as compared with soils of similar promise in less favored latitudes, such results would not be expected, it is not our present purpose to investigate; let it suffice that experience has fully established the facts, and these facts are much more im-

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portant than any theories by which they might be explained.

A bright prospect is opening before East Florida, and many years will not pass by before her increased wealth and population will astonish those who are unacquainted with the value and extent of her undeveloped resources. Her soil, her climate, the value of her productions and position constitute elements of prosperity eqalled by no state in the Union, and must in time produce their natural results.

The following is the circular of the *Southern Central Association of Georgia* in regard to the convention proposed to be held in May next, at Montgomery.

At a meeting called by the Executive Committee of the *Southern Central Agricultural Association*, in Macon, Ga., on the 21st of October, 1852, attended by a large number of the State Society of Georgia, and by delegates from Virginia, S. Carolina, Alabama, Mississippi, Florida, Tennessee and Louisiana, the following resolutions were adopted:—

Resolved, That the members of the Agricultural Association of the Slaveholding States, to be organized as hereinafter recommended, be composed of such citizens of the same as, taking an interest in Agriculture, desire to become members thereof, and of Delegates from State and Local Agricultural Societies; and from States or parts of States.

Resolved, That such persons as above designated, are recommended to convene at Montgomery, Ala., on the first Monday in May next, and to organize an Agricultural Association of the Slaveholding States, under such provisions as to them may appear best calculated to fulfil the purposes of their organization, which shall hold its meetings, in succession, in all the slave-holding states that may participate in the Association.

Resolved, That a Committee of Correspondence, to consist of seven, be appointed to carry into effect the foregoing resolutions.

Acting under the third resolution, the undersigned respectfully invite your attention, and solicit your co-operation and influence in promoting the great and important interests involved in the subjects which will engage the attention of the contemplated assemblage in Montgomery.

To us it is manifest that great advantages may reasonably be expected to result from periodical meetings of persons or representatives of persons cultivating the soil of the South and West, having a common interest in the Institutions, Productions, Commerce, Manufactures and Education of the Planting States.

The chief objects of such an Association, it is presumed, would be to improve our own agriculture, yielding peculiar productions through the agency of a normal labor, requiring a distinct economy, and dependent on a climate of its own:

To develop the resources and unite and combine the energies of the Slaveholding States, so as to increase their wealth, power and dignity, as members of this Confederacy:

To enlist and foster those scientific pursuits which reveal to us the elements and character of our soils, instruct us in the presence of those magazines of fertilizers which Nature has with so bountiful and considerate a hand provided for the uses of the industrious and the enterprising; and search out the histories and habits of the insect tribes which destroy (it is believed) annually a fifth of our crops, and supply us with a knowledge of them which may enable us to guard against their future ravages:

To promote the mechanic arts, directly and indirectly auxiliary to agriculture, and by a generous confidence and liberal patronage, raise those engaged in them to a social position, always the just reward of intelligence, industry and good conduct:

To direct, as far as may be done, public sentiment against the barriers which have been artfully raised to cut off our commercial intercourse with distant countries, save through such outlets as are supplied by Northern marts, exacting tribute upon what we produce and consume:

To exert an influence in establishing a system of common school instruction which will make Christians as well as scholars of our children; which, in arming the rising generation with the instruments of knowledge, will instruct them also in their proper uses; impressing upon them, from first to last, that (especially under our form of government) private worth constitutes the aggregate of public good, and that no one can disregard his duties to those around him without positive injury to himself.

These constitute the main purposes for which we appeal to the individual

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and aggregate interests of the Slave-holding States to meet us in an Agricultural Convention, in Montgomery, on the first Monday in May next. Your attendance is respectfully and earnestly requested.

W. C. Daniel, *De Kalb Co.;* George R. Gilmer, *Lexington;* Thomas Stocks, *Greensboro';* J. Hamilton Couper, *Darien;* James M. Chambers, *Columbus;* Asbury Hull, *Athens;* John P. King, *Augusta.*

The following highly interesting communication from the Hon. Garnett Andrews presents some facts connected with *the early history of the cotton gin in Georgia*, that cannot fail to be interesting.

Cotton having become of such vast importance, not only to the producers, but to the world, every thing relating to its history is of interest. Therefore, I am induced to give a little information I lately obtained in relation to the great staple.

I rode, a few days since, six miles below this place, to see my old friend Thomas Talbot, and his kitchen and barn. Mr. Talbot is eighty-three years old, in full possession of his faculties, and is living where he settled sixty-two years ago. Whitney, the inventor of the cotton gin, settled a plantation adjoining him, on which he placed one of his gins, the first that was used in Wilkes county—perhaps the first in the state. He and his partner, Durkee, erected a gin house and a large cotton house—the latter to hold the cotton they expected to receive from customers to gin. The gin house was grated, so that visitors might look through and see the cotton flying from it without seeing the gin. He suffered *women* to go into the gin house to see the machinery, not apprehending that they could betray his secret to builders. Lyon, who lived some eight or ten miles above this place, by dressing himself in women's clothes, procured admittance, and came out and made his improvement, the saw gin. Mr. Talbot says that Billy McFerran, a little Irish blacksmith, who died a few years ago in this country, made the saws, the first that ever were made. Durkee, Whitney's partner, being dissipated, and inattentive to business, sold out his place, and the gin and cotton house coming into the possession of Mr. Talbot, he moved them to this place. The former is now his kitchen, and still has its long grated windows, as in the time of Whitney. The cotton house makes a large and commodious barn. Mr. Talbot says that Allison or Ellison, who had been connected with Whitney in business, told him that the latter got his first idea of the invention from a gin used to prepare rags for making paper, and which he saw on a wrecked vessel.

On the place sold by Whitney, was erected, in 1811, a cotton factory, and, I presume, the first in the state. The prime mover in the enterprise was a Mr. Bolton, of Savannah, a merchant, who spent his summers then in Washington. Mr. Talbot had four shares. The factory had one hundred and sixty spindles, cost $1.700, and made fifty yards of cloth a day, which sold from fifty cents to one dollar per yard. The weaving was done by hand-loom weavers, who were obtained from Long Cane, in South Carolina. The factory proved an unprofitable affair.

In this connection, it may be interesting to say, that during the war of 1812, cotton was hauled from this country to Baltimore and Philadelphia, and the wagons loaded back again with goods. Wagoners are now living in the country who used to drive the teams engaged in this service.

I cannot close this communication without a word about my aged and highly respectable friend, in his character of planter. Some of the land now in cultivation by Mr. Talbot, was old when three-fourths of Georgia was in the possession of the Indians. Originally of a strong soil, as Wilkes county generally was, Mr. Talbot, by paying some attention to improvement, has not only preserved but much improved some of his old lands. But that to which I wish particularly to direct attention, is his regret that he had not commenced hill-side ditching long ago, before the creeks and branches had carried off the best of his soil. The walnut, locust and other shade trees in his yard, planted by his own hands, have the appearance of aged trees. His servants, some as old, or older than himself, with their generations of children, grandchildren, and I do not know how far to go in the great-grandchildren line, give to the white-headed citizen the appearance of a patriarch at the head of his tribe. He has had born on his place one hundred and nine children, but has kept no record of deaths.

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ART. XIII.—MISCELLANEOUS STATISTICS OF WEALTH AND PROGRESS, ETC.

CLOTHING FOR NEGROES—SLAVERY AS A PUNISHMENT FOR CRIME—POPULATION AND RESOURCES OF CALIFORNIA—SLAVERY AS AN ELEMENT OF SOUTHERN STRENGTH—MOUNTAIN REGION OF SOUTH CAROLINA—FINANCES AND GROWTH OF MICHIGAN—SHIP CANAL AT ST. MARY.

The following is recommended by Mr. Johnson, of Concordia, La., as a cheap mode of providing *waterproof sacks for negroes*, in their exposure on our southern estates:—

"For a plantation of fifty or a hundred negroes, take twenty gallons of linseed oil, into which mix three pounds of litharge, after the oil shall have been boiled a few moments. The litharge should be pulverised before being incorporated with the oil, and well stirred in. Previously an overcoat, or sack, should have been neatly made from common cotton cloth, called domestics, long enough to reach below the knees, to be closely buttoned up in front. When the mixture of oil and litharge is boiling hot, immerse the garment, wring it as dry as possible, and let it hang in the sun for three days, when it will become completely waterproof, an overcoat for the negro, secure against storm or tempest, impervious to the wintry winds, or the chills of the nights. It will cost less than sixty cents per sack, and last one or two years."

Whilst upon the subject of negroes we are reminded of an argument made by Ashbel Smith, of Texas, upon the *right of inflicting slavery as a punishment for crime*, as has been done in Texas, in the case of free negroes convicted of stealing slaves. We intended an earlier notice of the very able paper. Mr. Smith says:

"The whole system of penitentiary punishment is the practical carrying into effect the doctrine that by the commission of crime the personal services and personal liberty of the criminal are become forfeit to the state. The state retains the ownership of the convict, the keeper is the state's overseer; the convict is wholly deprived of all liberty, and all his labor is owing and paid to the state; he barely receives the commonest food and coarsest clothing. And this everywhere in Christendom is deemed a fitting punishment for crimes of much less heinousness than that for which the free negroes of the Billow have just been sold into slavery. The truth is, the punishment of these negroes has been *ameliorated under our statute in favor of their color*. For the same crime, in almost any state of Christendom, they would have been punished capitally—and this would have been the punishment in our state of Texas, had they been white, or they would have been sentenced to the penitentiary for life; whereas, now, these free negroes are allowed all the out-door liberty consistent with their due punishment, and by good conduct they may confidently expect to enjoy a large share of personal comforts. Indeed, in this respect, their physical well-being will doubtless be improved by their change of condition. One of the negroes frankly expressed this opinion, and preferred to be tried for kidnapping, and sold as a slave, if convicted, than to be tried for the larceny, with the penitentiary in prospect.

"The 5th George IV., c. 84, gives to the governor of a penal colony a property in the services of a transported offender for the period of his sentence, and authorizes him to assign over such offender to any other person. And in this way hundreds and thousands of British subjects, convicted of crimes, are annually assigned as farm and domestic servants in the penal colonies of that country. According to the official memorandum, laying down the duties of a convict in assignment, '*he is required to devote his whole time and his best services to his* MASTER.' 'Flogging, solitary confinement, and labor in a chain-gang,' are the punishments authorized by law for misconduct by a convict in assignment, and these punishments are not a dead letter among neglected rules and obsolete regulations, but they are inflicted with a frequency and severity that gives us an appalling idea of a British penal colony—SLAVE colonies they should be called, for such in fact and in form they are. 'A fixed but limited ration of food is allowed, and clothing of the commonest description.' This is the British system of to-day—it is slavery under the name of transportation.'"

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CALIFORNIA.—A census of California has recently been taken by agents appointed by the Governor, under authority of the Legislature, which furnishes some interesting statistics. The entire population of the state is 224,435, exclusive of El Dorado county, which is supposed to contain about 30,000, and which, therefore, makes the entire population about 255,000. It is evident, however, that the population of the state greatly exceeds this number. The migratory habits of the miners, and the vast numbers who have no settled abode, but go from place to place in search of employment, or in speculating adventures, render it altogether impracticable to obtain reliable statistics as to population. We are satisfied the population of the state is not less than 300,000, and our impression is that 350,000 would be nearer the mark. According to this census, San Francisco county contains 36,151 inhabitants, of whom 34,876 reside within the city. Of these there are white males 29,166; and of white females 5,154; the proportion of males to females being nearly six to one. This inequality in the sexes, however, is daily diminishing, as every vessel that arrives brings a much greater proportion of females than heretofore. But when it is known there are in San Francisco over *five thousand* females, those who contemplate bringing their families here will readily perceive there is no lack of female society. The population of this city, however, is doubtless greater by several thousands than is shown by the census returns. Our impression is it is between thirty-five and forty thousand, and is daily augmenting in a ratio which almost startles belief. Next to San Francisco, Sacramento City is the largest town in the state, and contains between seven and eight thousand inhabitants. Next to this is Marysville, with a population of 4,500; then Stockton, with a population of 3,000; Nevada City about the same, and numerous villages numbering from 300 to 2,500 inhabitants. One fact in reference to San Francisco is very surprising, to wit: that of its population nearly nineteen thousand, or more than one-half, are *foreigners*, of whom 16,144 are males and 2,710 females. These foreigners are composed chiefly of Chinese and French, of whom the former are much the more numerous, though there are also large numbers of the latter. It is to be regretted that the census returns do not, in most of the counties, distinguish between foreigners from different nations. In some counties, however, the Chinese have been separately classified. In Yuba county, for example, there are 2,100 Chinamen; in Nevada county, 3,886; in Placer county, 3,019; in Sacramento county, 804. We think it would be within bounds to say there at least 25,000 Chinamen in California, whilst the number of French is probably much greater. Indeed the emigration hither from France is far greater than from any other European nation. Within the last few days a vessel from France arrived here, having on board two hundred females, chiefly unmarried girls, who drew prizes in the great lottery which came off at Paris some months ago, and in which many of the prizes consisted of a free passage to California.

From the census returns it appears there are in the whole state only 315,000 head of beef cattle. When it is remembered that the daily consumption is between 500 and 1,000 head, it will be perceived that the supply must come from abroad. A few perhaps will be imported from Lower California and Sonora, but by far the greater number must come across the plains. On several occasions we have adverted to this subject, and each day but renders it the more apparent that the demand for stock will continue unabated for several years to come, but especially during this year and the next.

The census returns also furnish some very interesting statistics as to the agricultural resources of the state. In Los Angelos county, for example, there are 105 vineyards, containing in the aggregate 450,000 grape-vines, each vine producing on an average five pounds of fruit, equal in the whole to two millions two hundred and fifty thousand pounds, of which about one million of pounds are annually shipped to San Francisco, and the remainder is manufactured into wine and brandy, of which there are produced about 2,000 barrels of each. This, be it remembered, is the product of *one* county, and there are several counties in that section of the state altogether as well adapted to wine-growing, though none of them have, as yet, engaged so extensively as Los Angelos in the business. The grapes are of

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the most delicious quality, and the wine obtained from them is very much superior, in our judgment, to any native wine produced upon the continent, not excepting Mr. Longworth's "sparkling Catawba."

In Santa Clara county, it appears there are 17,739 fruit trees, which, it is presumed, are chiefly pear trees, as that county is famous for its varieties of this fruit. In Los Angelos, and other southern counties, peaches of excellent flavor are also produced in abundance; but, as yet, it remains a matter of doubt whether this climate is suited to the apple. Our impression is it will be found to be too warm, though many are of a different opinion.

The mineral springs of California, as disclosed by the census returns, are more numerous and of greater variety than has been supposed. In Santa Barbara county there are several tar springs, and the sea throws up bitumen for leagues along the coast. In the same county there is a hot sulphur spring, with a temperature of 100 degrees Fahrenheit. In Solano county, and near to Benicia, there are several large soda springs of about a pleasant temperature for bathing; while in San Luis Obispo county there are numerous bituminous and sulphur springs, supposed by the natives to have very peculiar medicinal qualities. So in Los Angelos county, there is a hot spring on Bernardino, (the Morman estate,) numerous salt springs, from which the wants of the inhabitants are supplied, and a spring near the town of Los Angelos, covering about two acres, from which pitch or asphaltum boils up, and which is used for the roofs of houses. But the greatest natural curiosities perhaps in the world, are the hot sulphur springs, (or geysers,) in Napa county. The following is the account of them in the census returns:

The hot sulphur springs, (or geysers,) in the mountains, about seventy miles above Napa city, in a northerly direction, are some of the greatest curiosities of the globe. They are from one foot to eight or nine feet in diameter, and constantly in a boiling state; water spouting to the height of ten or fifteen feet. Hundreds of fissures in the sides of the mountain emit strong currents of heated gas, making low hissing noises, as loud as the steam escaping from ocean steamers.

These returns, however, are of peculiar interest, so far as they relate to the mineral resources of California. In almost every county in the state rare and valuable minerals are found. In Butte county, for example, there are found platina and iron, lead almost in a pure state, quicksilver in abundance, and silver in small quantities; also rich quartz veins and "placer" gold mines in various portions of the county. In Calaveras county are some of the richest gold mines in the state. In Klamath county gold is found in abundance. In Los Angelos county gold in small quantities has been discovered. In Marion county, though not what is termed a "mining" county, gold-bearing quartz, placer-gold, silver and copper ores are found; whilst cinnabar, yielding 60 per cent. of quicksilver, asphaltum, marble, and granite, are abundant. In Mariposa county are many rich gold mines. Six quartz mills are in operation, and five hundred and twenty-two quartz veins have been "legally located." The census returns for this county state as follows:

Immense deposits of gold are known to exist in the beds of the San Joaquin and Marcede rivers and other streams, which can only be obtained by a heavy expenditure of capital and labor. Minerals of every kind are found. The extent of the gold region is some one hundred miles in breadth, and extending "indefinitely back into unexplored regions."

In Monterey county gold and silver have been found in small quantities. In Napa county is a quicksilver mine, supposed to be very rich. In Nevada county are numerous gold mines of peculiar richness. There are in that county thirty-three quartz mills in operation, employing a capital of over $3,000,000, whilst that of over $800,000 is employed in the Placer mines. In Placer county are also very rich gold mines, employing a capital of $1,427,567, whilst about the same amount has been invested in "flumes" and canals to convey water to the "diggings."

We have had upon our table, for a very long time, a most interesting paper, by Felix Huston, upon the subject of *slavery as an element of southern strength*. It was our design to publish it entire, but have been prevented by a press of other matters. We will at least make an extract, showing the parallel between Roman and Greek slavery and our own:

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If slavery would have impaired the military strength of the Israelites, or if it was wrong, it would be impeaching the great Ruler of the universe to suppose that he would have imposed on the Jews a burthen which would tend to defeat them, and it would be sacrilege to allege that the Deity positively authorized the commission of a sin. There are no data by which to estimate the number of slaves which the Israelites possessed, but it is certain that they were very numerous, and the whole biblical history does not show that the Jews ever suffered from insurrections. The Greeks held vast numbers of slaves at the time of their greatest strength, and those who were most prominent and successful in war were the largest slaveholders. The Spartans had eight slaves to one freeman, and the Athenians had almost the same proportion. And here let me notice a single historical error committed by Mr. Webster "in his compromise speech." He says that the Greeks justified slavery on the same ground that the southern states do, that is, on account of the inferiority of race—that they considered the Ethiopians and some of the Asiatic nations inferior races who might be subjected to servitude. The Greeks never had Ethiopian slaves, nor was it until late in their history that they had Asiatic slaves. Slavery existed in Greece before the siege of Troy, and it was three or four centuries after this authentic history commences, before they extended their conquests into Asia. The Grecian states that attained great power commenced their career of greatness, as I have stated, first, by conquering the nearest cities; and, as they gained strength, extending their conquests. Greek slaves were mostly themselves Greeks, of the same language and color, and equal to, or but little inferior to their conquerors.

It is true, the Greeks held other nations to be barbarians who might be reduced to servitude, but they knew nothing about Ethiopians, made no distinction as to the Asiatic nations; and without hesitation, made slaves of Greeks who were conquered. Aristotle expresses the general principle of the Greeks thus: "with barbarians, the family consists of male and female slaves. but to the Geeks belong dominion over the barbarians, because the former have the understanding requisite to rule, the latter body only to obey." In this there is nothing about Ethiopians or the different tribes of Asia, and a few instances will show that the principle of conquest was extended over the Greeks. The Spartans, at an early day, conquered the neighboring city of Helos, and made slaves of the inhabitants; they also subjected other tribes, but the greatest portion of Spartan slaves were Messinians.

The City of Messina and Sparta were rivals, and of the same Doric origin. Previous to the accession of strength to the Spartans by the conquest of Helos, the Messinians were the strongest, but after that event a struggle for existence commenced, which extended through many years, and it was frequently doubtful whether the Messinians would conquer the Spartans, or the Spartans the Messinians. At length by the aid of treachery, rather than force, the Spartans succeeded, and occupied the Messinian territory, reducing to servitude such of the inhabitants as did not fly into the neighboring territories. Thus did Sparta become one of the most powerful states of Greece. Notwithstanding the large number of Spartan slaves, and the long and cruel wars by which they were subjected, it does not appear that they ever became formidable to their oppressors, except on one or two occasions. On the contrary, they greatly aided in the splendid triumphs of the Spartans—and so little were they dreaded, that they often accompanied their masters in war. When five thousand Spartan pikemen marched to the battle of Platæa, they were attended by thirty-five thousand Helots, who fought in the battle as light troops, and the Athenian soldiery, and those of their allies, were each attended by one slave.

In that great battle, which freed Greece from the Persian invasion, the number of slaves engaged were more than double the number of freemen.

The Athenians increased in power, strength and military renown, in the same manner that the Spartans did, with this difference, that as they had a good harbor, and excelled in naval warfare, most of their slaves were obtained by the conquest of the islands of the Archipelago, and at a later day from the coast of Asia.

The rise of Rome, from a very small beginning, is a strong example of the principles herein set forth. That nation commenced as a band of robbers. The

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victims of their first conquests were reduced to slavery or incorporated with themselves. They gradually extended their power over Italy, and finally conquered nearly the whole of the known world. During all this process, the number of their slaves increased *pari passu* with their power and dominion, until, as I have seen it stated, the number of slaves in and around Rome exceeded the freemen in the proportion of twelve or fifteen to one.

Amongst the Romans, the industrial pursuits were almost entirely entrusted to slaves and freedmen; and as the country advanced, they were frequently enrolled in the armies, and trained as gladiators.

And yet, on but two occasions, did the slaves give any serious trouble to the masters. One was when the country was torn to pieces by internal dissensions, and the other was under Spartacus, already referred to.

When Hannibal invaded Italy, and had nearly destroyed the Roman army, large bodies of slaves were enlisted, and it is stated by Livy that one wing of his army was defeated by two legions of slaves, under the command of Sempronius.

This shows what was the character of ancient servitude.

Again, during the second triumvirate, thirty thousand slaves were enrolled in the army; and when Augustus Cæsar had overcome his opponents, and peace was established, he restored twenty-six thousand to their owners, and six thousand, for whom no owners could be found, were put to death.

These things, and the arming of thousands of slaves as gladiators, abundantly account for all the difficulties which Rome had with her slaves.

Indeed, when we reflect on the warlike nations subdued by Rome, and the vast number of persons she reduced to servitude in Gaul, Germany, Britain, Spain, Carthage, and Asia, and connect that with the impolicy of arming them and training them in her armies, it is really surprising that in the course of eight hundred years there should not have been more than two or three slave insurrections.

In modern times there is nothing worth mentioning in connection with the subject. Since the invention of fire-arms, slaves are only known as producers, and I can bring to mind no instance where they, in any other respect, have had an effect, favorable or unfavorable, on the operations of the state.

Our own experience, during the Revolutionary war, and the war of 1812, has been referred to; and the only thing having a bearing worth referring to on this subject, is the insurrection in St. Domingo, in 1791. This insurrection having occurred so near to us, and being within the recollection of many persons living, who heard the exaggerated accounts of the day, has fastened itself on the public imagination, until it has become a subject of frequent reference, and even southern twaddlers declaim about the southern states becoming reduced to the condition of St. Domingo, and abolitionists triumphantly point to it as a case where the negro race have asserted and maintained their freedom.

Properly speaking, this was not a slave insurrection, although it assumed that form after the island was thrown into a revolutionary war.

The island of St. Domingo, in 1791, contained about 750,000 inhabitants, about 50,000 of whom were whites, more than double that number of mulattoes and of mixed blood, and the balance were negroes.

The French and Spanish planters had introduced a general system of concubinage, and the consequence was a numerous progeny of mulattoes, many of whom associated with the whites, nearly on terms of equality, were educated at home, or sent to Europe to be educated, and many of them were wealthy, having been freed by their parents, and their property left to them. These things had lowered the character of the white proprietors, gradually lowering them down to the level of the mulattoes, and lessening the distance between them and the blacks; and, in addition to this, there were a number of the white population who were poor and enervated, and rendered vicious by the low state of social morals and influence of the climate.

In this state of affairs, when the French revolution broke out, the wild spirit of liberty caught to the island, and infected the mulattoes and the lower class of white population, and they sought to equalize themselves with the large proprietors. The foundations of society were broken up by this intermediate class, and, in the course of the

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struggle, they called in the blacks, and the two united, exceeding the whites in the proportion of twelve to one, expelled them from the island, and since that time a continual struggle has been going on between the mulattoes and negroes, the latter having numbers and brute force, and the former sustaining themselves by superior intelligence.

How far the disturbances created by gladiators and slaves trained to arms, and disbanded soldiers in Italy, or the rising of the mulattoes and negroes in St. Domingo, has any analogy to the institution of slavery, as it exists among us, can only be determined by the spirit of fairness and candor, or of hatred and prejudice with which they are viewed.

To me it appears that the teachings of history show that there never has been a formidable slave insurrection, considered purely as such, and that a comparison of our situation with slavery as it existed elsewhere, ought to relieve the minds of the most timid from any apprehension of danger from our negroes, under any circumstances, in peace or in war.

Professor Toumey, at the conclusion of his very able report on the Geological Survey of the State of South Carolina, gives the following interesting description of the beauties of its mountain scenery :

"There are few places where persons in search of health or pleasure, could spend a month or two more pleasantly than among the mountains of the state. They commit a great mistake who imagine that by skipping to the top of Table Rock, with the aid of Mr. Sunderland's steps, and from thence run across to Cæsar's Head, they have exhausted the beauties of this region.

"Let them commence at the Limestone Springs, where a day or two may be pleasantly spent in visiting Gilkey's mountains, from the top of which there is a fine view, and in examining the Iron Works. Some of the islands in the river must also be examined. Crossing the river, and proceeding up the mountain on the York side, till they reach its peak, just over the North Carolina line, where, looking from the rugged top of that fearful escarpment, a scene will present itself not readily to be forgotten. Returning by way of the battle-ground, a simple stone will be found recording the names and marking the resting-places of the brave who fell on the side of liberty. From this Broad River must be re-crossed, to the Cowpens, where relics of the strife of that field may yet be picked up. At and near the furnace, there are many picturesque spots, as well as a chalybeate spring.

"Proceeding westward till Hog-back, Glassy, and some of the peaks of the Saluda Mountains are seen lifting their sublime forms above the horizon, in the gray distance, no better guides will be wanted till the base of Glassy is reached. Taking an obscure path from the road, if the tourists have sure-footed horses, they may ride to the top; if not, it must be accomplished on foot. This should be early in the morning, for many a temptation to linger will be presented in the shady dells and other beautiful spots on the way upwards. Many a sparkling, playful little stream will beckon them from their path, to witness its daring leap, as it starts on its downward journey to its great home, the ocean. From the top of the mountain the view is beautiful. The distance to Hodge's is but short; and here a week or a fortnight must be spent. The falls of the Saluda, three or four hundred feet in height, are almost in sight, and scarcely a rivulet that meanders among the rhododendrons that does not present a little picture of its own, well worth the finding. After they have examined this place to the right and left, if they do not heartily pity those who pass, with rail-road speed, through this wonderful gap, I am greatly mistaken.

"Our ramblers will next ascend to Poinsett's Spring, where I am sure they will admire the good taste and simple beauty of that fountain, and if they have walked up they will bless the man that was mindful of the way-worn traveler. Mr. Burton, at the toll-gate, will conduct them to the top of Walnut Mountain. Of the scene that presents itself here I can only say that if, after beholding it, they do not return more humble and better men, they need proceed no further.

"After spending a few days here the base of the Saluda mountains must be circled to the south prong of Saluda, where, at an old mill, close to the mountain side, they will be repaid for the journey across, by the sight of a waterfall of great beauty, brought out against the dark shadows of the hemlocks that overshadow the banks. The journey between this and Cæsar's Head is

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not wanting in interest and beautiful views. From the top of the Head, every one knows how magnificent is the scene, but it is at sunset when Table Rock stands out against its glorious background of mountains, that it is the most impressive.

"The distance to Table Rock is but a few hours' ride. On the way the travelers amuse themselves with reflections on the stupendous force that severed at this point the mountain, leaving Cæsar's Head and Table Rock fit monuments to attest the event.

"At Table Rock they will be in the hands of the veteran guide, Mr. Sunderland, with whom I will leave them, with the assurance that however high conceptions they may have formed of this noble rock, they will not be disappointed. From the rock to Mr. Barton's hospitable abode is but a short distance, and from this point the wild scenery of the Estatoe mountains must be visited. After this they will receive a hearty welcome from the Kennys, who will conduct them to the Iocassa valley. They will see here, on the tops of the mountains, forming vast walls, an extension of the stratum seen at Table Rock. The White-water meeting with this in its course, and tired of the slow process of cutting a channel through it, fairly clears it at a bound, forming one of the finest waterfalls of the South. Tomassie, and the quiet scenery of Pickens, may close the ramble, as they turn their faces homeward, their minds, I trust, filled with pleasant remembrances of this most beautiful region."

The following table of the *productions of the State of Michigan in the year* 1837, immediately after being admitted into the Union, and the year 1850, may be useful to our readers for reference.

	1837.	1850.
Grist Mills	114	193
Saw Mills	433	433
Carding Machines	23	—
Cloth Dressing Shops	12	—
Distilleries	16	—
Merchants	705	—
Bushels of wheat	1,014,698	4,393,141
" rye	21,944	102,200
" corn	791,427	5,704,172
" oats	1,110,910	1,343,134
" buckwheat	64,022	476,811
Pounds of flax	43,826	—
Horned cattle	39,610	271,303
Horses	14,059	57,842
Sheep	22,684	756,382
Dogs	109,096	202,588
Bushels of barley	none.	70,801

In 1840 the population was 212,267. In 1850, 400,000. The difference of the rates of increase of the various articles is singular:—while the population has more than doubled in this period, the amount of wheat is over four times greater, rye five times, corn eight times, oats show but a small increase, buckwheat over seven times, cattle three times, horses four times, hogs have scarcely doubled, and sheep nearly thirty-four times. We should thence judge that, while our soil has been found ill-fitted for oats, it is peculiarly adapted for corn and buckwheat, and that sheep are the favourite stock. We may add that in 1850, 2,007,598 pounds of wool were clipped; and that 7,056,478 pounds of butter, 1,112,646 pounds of cheese were made, being not quite eighteen pounds of butter, and three pounds of cheese to each individual. There is, we believe, no great quantity of butter imported into the state, but as yet, we depend upon New-York and Ohio for a large amount of the cheese we consume. What butter we do receive is understood to come from Ohio, Illinois and Indiana. Before the next census ought we not to export both the articles?

In the year 1830, Michigan territory, including what is now Wisconsin, contained 30,848 whites, and 280 persons of color, of whom twenty-seven were slaves. In 1810, the population was 4,762; and in 1820, 8,896.

Governor McClelland, of Michigan, in his last message, describes the financial condition of the state as healthy and encouraging. The following statement shows the results for two years:

The amount in the treasury, November 30, 1850	$35,360 27
Receipts during the fiscal year	414,390 18
Available means	$549,740 45
The expenditures for the same period	352,597 22
Balance in the treasury, November 30, 1850	$97,243 23
Receipts during the last fiscal year	451,082 97
Available means	$548,326 20
The expenditures for the same period,	431,918 97
Balance in the treasury, November 30, 1852	$116,407 23

The funded and fundable debt of the state was:

November 30, 1851	$2,568,269 13
November 30, 1852	2,307,850 19
The specific taxes for 1851 were	27,717 30
The specific taxes for 1852 were	85,854 71

The governor urges the policy of creating a sinking-fund, as provided for by the constitution.

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For the sake of equalizing taxation, he rather approves the policy of assessing property at its selling value. There are few things about which those seeking a new home are more inquisitive than the rate of taxation. Michigan taxes appear to be quadruple what they really are, because the tax is ostensibly levied on thirty millions of property, when it is actually assessed on about one hundred and thirty millions.

The sales of public lands amounted for the year 1852, to $90,055. The receipts, during the same period, to $236-844. Capital punishment has been abolished in the state, and solitary confinement substituted in its place. Although the propriety of the change is doubted, yet he desires to see the principle and the law fully carried out and fully tested. The present structures, however, will not admit of it.

Ship Canal at St. Mary.—On the 26th day of August last, Congress passed an act for the construction of a ship-canal around the Falls of St. Mary. It grants the right of locating a canal through the Military Reservation, at the Falls of St. Mary's River, and four hundred feet of land in width, extending along the line of the canal, and also 750,000 acres of public land, to be selected by an agent to be appointed by the governor of the state, subject to the approval of the secretary of the interior. Every effort should be made to keep the work out of the hands of mere speculators, and honestly to perform the trust, for it is a work of great importance to all of the lake states.

The capital is permanently fixed, and the state is owner of real estate estimated at $106,995, in the village of Lansing. But there is not a fire-engine in the place, and the public buildings are not fire-proof. To this the attention of the legislature is directed.

ART. XIV.—EDITORIAL MISCELLANY—NOTES, ETC.

LETTER FROM ROME—NOTICES OF GAYARRE'S HISTORICAL LABORS—NEW BOOKS—MEMPHIS CONVENTION, ETC.

In one of our numbers last summer we took the liberty of extracting some very pretty thoughts from the letter of a young lady in Naples to her sister in this country. Having had the privilege of perusing another of these letters written from Rome, our readers will think a few extracts some relief in the tedious monotony of argument and statistics with which our pages abound.

Rome.—Warm summer days always bring me thoughts of you; so many summers have found us together in our dear country home, that I thought it would be always so, and can scarcely recognize a summer as *genuine* without *you*. I have known many homes, but none seem to me half so *homelike* as the one where our fathers dwelt. When I'm weary with wandering, weary of strange places, and of stranger people, memory is my gentle comforter. She brings me pictures glowing with the hue of life, and warm with the sunny smile of affection; no artist's pencil, no poet's fire-tipped pen, can tell you how beautiful they are to me. The landscape is ever the same; need I say how the wooded hills meet the western skies and bathe in the purple light; how the waters, ever silent and majestic, glitter as they pass onward to the ocean, or how peacefully on the sloping bank rest the ivy-grown walls of the cottage. This will come to you when those woods are dyed with crimson. Look out upon them, and your mind will not receive a more potent image than mine in its dreamy wanderings. Wonderful is this magic memory land! and it lies so close to us, that a word, a look, a tone, carries us irresistibly to it. Even now, as I gaze upon the "seven-hilled city," spread out before me, with its world of wonders and crowd of haunting remembrances, the theme is not half so suggestive as those memories of "auld lang syne."

I had thought to take you back to Naples, and tell you of our sorrowful farewell to its beauties, of Vesuvius, and of that loveliest of islands, Capri, but I must wait until my lips can be the medium of communication, for you know my pen is soon weary, and there is so much to occupy it here. The theme will have lost none of its interest when we meet, I assure you, for there is a rosy hue over all my recollections of last winter. The common proverb says, "Vedi Napoli e poi mori,"—See Naples and then die.

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I need not tell you with what strangely mingled feelings we first drove through the streets of *Rome*. The name alone is "a volume in a word." There is scarce a page in the world's history where it finds not a place, and many and varied are the associations that cluster about it. Noble matrons in all the grandeur and beauty of a true woman's might—stern lawgivers, in their judge's robes trampling over their own bleeding hearts—heroic love, and bold ambition—heaven-daring genius and deeds of dark and fearful cruelty—war and bloodshed—fierce battles, fire and pestilence, and a thousand other forms and visions flitted before me in that ride.—"The Niobe of nations!"

My brother does not share my enthusiastic interest in all that concerns ancient Rome, and has quite renounced his boyish love and reverence for the classics. He talks very learnedly of the views of Niebuhr and Arnold, and would have me give up all those pretty stories we learned in our old history-books—Mutius Scævola, and his burning hand: Cincinnatus, and his dignified poverty; Quintus Curtius, and his daring leap; and many others, as idle fables. But I have my revenge, for when he is rapturizing over some picture of the old masters, all stained and discolored by time and neglect, I pretend to see nothing but a piece of black canvas, without form or comeliness, and quote Murray's advice to credulous travelers. Yet I have been rather disappointed to find so few undisputed relics of those early days which seemed to us so full of poetry and beauty. I quite forgot how

"The Goth, the Christian, time, war, flood and fire,
Have dealt upon the seven-hill'd city's pride."

It is the Rome of the middle ages that I hear and think most of now.

In viewing works of *art*, generally, there arises in my mind, not a feeling of dissatisfaction exactly, but a painful yearning for something higher and nobler. My ideal of the beautiful is not answered; something mars the effect, and with an eager longing unquenched, I have ever turned away. *Nature* alone has perfectly satisfied, quieting each restless craving, and shedding over every feeling, repose. And this is just the sensation with which I gazed upon *St. Peter's*. But how can I tell you, what so many abler pens have so often repeated. In *fancy* we have often seen the snowy fountains sending up their sparkling wealth of spray to catch the sunbeams—the obelisk rearing its strange form—the noble dome and the gigantic statues—but the *reality* is very much more beautiful than even our wild fancies painted. I have stood for hours by one of the tall columns, (beside which I feel the merest insect,) in a sort of dreamy trance, awed by the *vastness* of everything about me. And we find little to break our reveries, for the winter crowd of strangers and tourists have all departed; the monks before the altar engaged in occasional services, and a few devotees, are all that disturb the impressive solitude of this mighty temples at noonday. I had formed no ideas of such immensity among the works of man before. In the inscription round the interior of the dome, the letters are several feet in height. It is—"Tu es Petrus, et super hunc Petram ædificato, ecclesiam meam, et tibi dato claves Regni Cœlorum," the well-known words of our Lord to St. Peter. The cherubs, which appear the size of infants, are six feet high. After one is satisfied with viewing the interior of the church as a whole, (which I never am,) there are many things in it to interest. Confessionals for all nations are scattered through the nave. Here is the famous statue of Jupiter Capitolinus, re-named St. Peter, the place of the thunder-bolt being supplied by the ever-present keys; the tomb of the Countess Matilda, and the monument to the last of the Stuarts. The latter is by Canova, and interested me very much.

St. Peter's and its adjacent buildings occupy the site of the circus and gardens of Nero, in the Campo Vaticano. The obelisk, brought originally from Heliopolis, remained on the spot where it was placed by Caligula until 1586, when Sextus V. removed it to its present place in the centre of the Piazza.

I forget who it is that calls architecture "frozen music;" and it is said of the architect of some famous cathedral, that, "he would sing a hymn in praise of God, and so he built St. ——." How noble is this hymn of the Buonarotti every part comes so melodiously into the whole, that it seems a thought-creation, rather than the works of men's hands.

The Vatican, which we visited next to St. Peter's, is a congregation of palaces, built at various times. Raffaelle, Bramate, Bernini, San Salta, and many other artists, contributed to its erection. It contains two hundred staircases, and four thousand chambers, each having its name from the painting decorating its walls. The Loggia di Raffaello was constructed by Leo the Tenth, under the direction of the great master whose name it bears. The walls were covered with some of his grandest designs, but during the occupation by the Austrians, many years since, these rooms were converted into barracks by the ruthless soldiery, and these magnificent productions nearly ruined. The Borgia suite was built by Alexander the Sixth, and contains the finest collection of pictures in the world. In it is Raffaelle's great picture of the Transfiguration. We have been there but once, and I was so very weary with wandering through the long suites of rooms and climbing the endless staircases, that I have rather confused impressions, even of this stupendous painting. We saw the Laocoon, and the Apollo of Bel-

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videre, standing where Michael Angelo placed it. The pavement of many of the rooms is of the richest mosaics, and the columns are of porphyry, alabaster, lapis lazuli, and Parian marbles. The library of the Vatican contains 30,000 volumes of manuscripts.

One of the things that interested me most in the Capitoline Museum, which comes next in the order of our visiting, was a collection of slabs brought from the sepulchres along the Appian way. The inscriptions, in many instances merely ejaculatory sentences, seemingly rung from the hearts of the bereaved, in the depth of their grief. Such as "Carissimæ conjugi," "Optimi filio," "Juliæ sororæ amatæ, hoc saxum cum multis lachrymis, posui." ("To my dear wife," "In memory of the best of sons." "In memory of Julia, our dear sister, we have placed this stone, with many tears.") They invested with a new and affectionate interest the people we have called the "*stern* Romans." Yet they wept as we weep over broken ties, and more bitterly surely, for to them "the grave was all uncertainty and gloom." One apartment of this museum contains the busts of the old emperor of Rome; in another is the "Dying Gladiator." Read Byron's description of this famous statue and you will have the original painted on your mind's eye with perfect accuracy.

It was on the Capitoline Mount, you remember, that Cola Di Rienzi, "The last of the Tribunes," was crowned. Aurelian's charger, from which streams of wine poured forth on that day, is still in the centre of the place of the Campidoglio. It is the only extant equestrian statue in bronze left us by antiquity. We have seen also the house of Rienzi. The site is marked by ruinous desolation, and the dwelling itself is a curious specimen of the domestic architecture in Rome in the fourteenth century.

The "Parthenon, pride of Rome!" is now the church of St. Maria ad Martyres, and is the only perfect imperial monument now existing. It belongs to the reign of Augustus Cæsar, and over the cornice of the portico, the inscription still remains: "M. Agrippa L. F. Tertium Fecit." You remember that it was the proud boast of Michael Angelo that he would pile the Parthenon on St. Peter's, and the dome of his mighty edifice is just the dimensions of this gem of antiquity. We were shown the original design of the great architect for St. Peter's, in the library of the Vatican; it was in the form of a Grecian cross, with a façade like the Parthenon. I will not weary you by a long description, even of this beautiful temple, for in repeating over so often Corinthian columns, friezes of porphyry, cornices of Parian marbles, and tesselated pavements, one's ideas get so confused; and were I to use the exaggerated epithets that my enthusiasm prompts, they would, in all probability, make the matter worse, so I will only say: Come to Italy, and help me both to admire and to express that admiration.

We visited, yesterday, the English Burial Ground, which is just out of the city, amid the ruins of Ancient Rome, very near the pyramidal tomb of Caius Cæsar. I sought eagerly for *Shelley's* tomb, that pure apostle of a mistaken philosophy. As we stood by the plain tablet that marks the spot where his ashes repose, one of our party repeated "the Sky-lark." I never felt its exquisite beauty half so well before; it is so like the clear, thrilling melody of the bird it apostrophises. We have often said it together, M., in "The pale purple even," and

> "In the golden lightning
> Of the sunken sun,"

but the familiar words seemed clothed with a new and strange import, when breathed forth in an Italian air, as a requiem over the poet's grave. The inscription upon his tomb is:

> Percy Bysshe Shelley—"Cor Cordium,"
> Nothing of him that doth fade,
> But doth suffer a sea change,
> Into something rich and strange.

You remember that when Leigh Hunt and Lord Byron burned his body by the waters where he met his untimely end, his *heart* was found unconsumed among the ashes.

We have been much interested in exploring some of the subterranean ruins; among them the baths of Titus. In some of the excavated chambers, the walls are frescoed with forms that have been beautiful, but time's effacing fingers are fast robbing them of form and color. As the torches of our guides glared upon them, ever and anon one would seem starting into life, dim, mysterious, and shadowy. The Laocoon was found in these baths in the time of Julio the Second.

You wonder, M——, that we selected the summer for visiting the "Eternal City," and have many fears of malaria for us. Our reason was, to avoid the winter crowd of strangers in Rome, and I am more delighted than I can tell you with this avoidance. Tourists there are who come to Italy because it is *fashionable*,—one's education is scarcely complete without "a season on the continent." And to bring about this properly, there is a certain round prescribed by fashion,—"The Coliseum by moonlight," the "Carnival," "the illumination of St. Peter's," at the end of Holy Week, etc., etc., etc. To one whose sense of the ludicrous is keenly developed, and who is willing to sacrifice the *beautiful* to the *humorous*, these people may be interesting; but I do not like to have my enthusiasm so rudely dissipated. You will hardly believe it, M——, but I heard one day an *oath* in St. Peter's! I need scarcely say that it was spoken by an English tongue. The Frenchman's name for the people using our mother tongue is fast

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spreading over the continent, and, shocking as it seems, they are recognized by children, all unconscious of its meaning, as "Monsieur God-damn."

You ask me to tell you of the *political* state of Italy. I rather marvelled at the question, for I thought you shared my *horror* of politics. 'Tis to me one of my many causes for thankfulness, that I am not a man, and therefore neither required nor expected to take any interest in such things. Even if I do feel a *little* interest, it is soon dispelled by the utter impossibility, on my part, of attaining any proper understanding of political mysteries. I get so troubled in trying to solve the perplexities that meet me at every step, that I relinquish the attempt in despair, and rest contented in knowing that there are wiser heads than mine, who devote the energies of strong wills and high patriotism to the task. But one must shut one's eyes entirely here, not to perceive the misery of bad government. The condition of the *many* often weighs heavily on my heart. Poverty and wretchedness were such new things to me, when I first came here, and the forms in which they were presented were so startling, that I was very unhappy. Yet a day of hope seems to be dawning, even for the oppressed people of this beautiful Italy. 'Tis like the faint streak in the east now, but it may herald the coming of day. Even the common people have a vein of poetry and enthusiasm about them that promises much. The memories of their glorious past, the monuments ever before them of their former magnificence and power, and recollections of the great names that have adorned their history, are not lost upon them. There is a cheerfulness about even the most wretched, while struggling with their poverty, that is truly beautiful. Indolent by nature, and careless as to anything beyond the immediate supply of their pressing necessities, the native happiness of their disposition breaks forth in song, and the old palaces and these graves of the olden time, echo with their tuneful notes. But I must defer, until my next, that most suggestive of subjects, the music of Italy. Till then, addio,

GERTRUDE.

The Hon. Charles Gayarré, late Secretary of State of Louisiana, will put to press, in a few weeks, the third and closing volume of his admirable history of Louisiana. It gives us great pleasure to introduce the following notice of the historical labors of Mr. Gayarré, which lately appeared in the columns of the *Washington Union:*

Charles Gayarré, for a long time Secretary of State of Louisiana, a descendant of some of the oldest and most noted families of the Spanish and French settlers, a gentleman in every respect high in character and reputation, has been, as most of our readers are aware, for many years engaged in illustrating the history of Louisiana, in a series of very able and interesting volumes.

The first of this series was published in 1835, in the French language, when the author was quite a young man; but subsequent residence in France, and daily access to the official records of the colonial office, justified him in a much more elaborate work, which, in the years 1846-'47, was contributed to the press in three volumes, also in the French language.

A general desire being expressed for the translation of this work into English, Mr. Gayarré declined, on the ground that it could better be re-written and re-arranged in that language than translated, and that he had come into possession of much new material in the shape of French and Spanish official manuscripts, obtained from abroad, through the munificence of the legislature and of private individuals.

In this spirit he took up anew the theme so full of romantic interest and instruction, and has already completed two very eloquent and elaborate volumes, whilst a third and closing one is in manuscript, and very nearly ready for the press. This third volume will almost be independent of the others, and will embrace the first authentic history of the Spanish domination in Louisiana from 1769 to 1803—a period in regard to which there has been so much error and misrepresentation. Of the volume Mr. Gayarré himself says:—"Embracing an entirely distinct period of history, it will be a different work from the preceding, as much perhaps in point of style and the other elements of composition, as with regard to the characteristic features of the new lords of the land." We do not doubt that its appearance will create a sensation, and open some new lights upon the subject of our Louisiana purchase and the various intrigues that preceded it.

We have not space for the purpose—and if we had, this would not be the place—to enter into a literary analysis of Mr. Gayarré's work, the second volume of which is before us, but we think we may be allowed to say that it challenges a position for itself, in elevation of style, in spirit, and in truthfulness, among the most classical productions of our American historians.

The reader will find interest at every page of his progress, whether in the stirring recitals of Indian wars and character; the graphic descriptions of natural scenery; the portraiture of leading personages sent over by the Spanish king to take possession of the colony; the bold and fearless proceeding of the colonists to prevent it, and to preserve their nationality and their liberties; the struggles which ensued; the trial of the conspirators—the terrible and bloody tragedy which closed the chapter. Never had historian such thrilling incidents, and never have such incidents been worked up with more power. Boldly and gloriously said the pa-

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triot Lafrénière, in the heat of this struggle, eight years before the patriots of '76 had made their immortal declaration: "In proportion to the extent both of commerce and population is the solidity of thrones; both are fed by liberty and competition, which are the nursing mothers of the state, of which the spirit of monopoly is the tyrant and step-mother. *Without liberty there are but few virtues. Despotism breeds pusillanimity and deepens the abyss of vice.* Man is considered as sinning before God only because he retains his free-will." Well remarks Mr. Gayarré: "to appreciate this bold language, it must be remembered that it was officially uttered by the attorney-general of an absolute king, and that it was intended to reach the ears of the despotic government of France." * * * *

"Thus was the revolution accomplished. A population which hardly numbered eighteen hundred men able to carry arms, and which had in its bosom several thousands of black slaves, whom it was necessary to intimidate into subjection, had rebelled against the will of France, had flung the gauntlet at the Spanish monarchy, and was bearding a powerful nation, whose distinguished trait of character did not consist in the forgiveness of injuries, particularly when her pride was wounded."—p. 226.

The history of this revolution in Louisiana of '68, for exalted patriotism, for courage and firmness, deserves to be read by the side of that of the American revolution itself. It wanted but the single element of *success*—that rule and measure by which men ever distinguish *heroism* from *madness*.

On page 151, etc., Mr. Gayarré, in describing the various personages of the suite of the Captain-General Ulloa, introduces mention of his distinguished ancestor, Don Estivan Gayarré, Royal Comptroller of the Treasury, a soldier high in the confidence of the king, who had won laurels in the fields of Italy, in Piedmont, and in the engagements of Aygabel and St. André; among the defiles of Lanell; in the trenches of Nice, and on the citadels of Villa Franca and Montalban—a brave man, a true gentleman and patriot, with all the virtues that adorn the healthy and hardy mountaineers of the Pyreneean heights.

We noticed, in our last, the work by Matthew J. Ward, entitled *English Items*, but are satisfied, from further examination, that we did not do it the full justice it deserves. The work will be before us for future reference. Meanwhile we extract the following from an influential contemporary, which is certainly complimentary to Mr. Ward:

"The author of this book is not unknown in the literary world, and doubtless he was encouraged by the success of the 'Letters from Three Continents,' to attempt a more circumstantial description of the habits, customs and national characteristics of the English. Mr. Ward is unlike the ordinary sort of young men and women who go to Europe to complete their education. He has a character and a mind of his own, and he is not dazzled by the hollow pomp and meretricious show of English life. Most of our young people go abroad only to learn to ridicule their own country. Of shallow minds and easy nature, they become enthusiastic admirers of royalty, aristocracy, and all sorts of social pretension, and affect a supercilious contempt for the simplicity of republican government, and for the habits and customs of democracy. It is not so with the author, as the book before us will attest. The more he sees of European life and society the more does he admire the institutions and customs of his own country. He thinks and feels like an American, though on English soil. A spirit of intense nationality is the characteristic of his book. He sees the faults of English society in their true proportions, and he lashes them with a scourge of scorpions. His book is a capital satire on England and the English. He seizes upon whatever is obnoxious to censure in English character and customs, and exposes it to contempt with great power of invective and ridicule. We like his independent way of thinking, and his trenchant sarcasm. But it is not only the temper of the book that pleases us; its literary merit is admirable. Its terse and vigorous style indicates a capacity in the writer to become an American classic. If Mr. Ward will but cultivate and mature his talents, he cannot fail to win eminent distinction in the literature of his country."

We acknowledge the receipt of the following works since the issue of our last:—

1. Hester Somerset; a novel, by N. M. A. Hart: Philadelphia.
2. Waverley Novels—Ivanhoe, The Abbot, The Monastery. Philadelphia: A. Hart.
3. My Novel; or Varieties in English Life. By Sir E. Bulwer Lytton. New-York: Harper and Brothers.
4. History of Europe, from the Fall of Napoleon to the Accession of Louis Napoleon in 1852. By Sir A. Alison, Bart. Part I., N. S. Harper and Brothers.
5. Bleak House. By Dickens. Part II. Harper and Brothers.
6. Restoration of Monarchy in France. Part III. By A. de Lamartine. Harper and Brothers.
7. A Hero, and other Tales. Harper and Brothers.
8. Life and Works of Robert Burns. Edited by Robert Chalmers. In 4 vols.: vol. 4. Harper and Brothers.
9. Shakspeare and his Times. By M. Guizot. Harper and Brothers.
10. Macauley's Speeches. 2 vols. By Redfield, New-York.

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11. My Consulship, by C. Edwards Lester. 2 vols. Cornish, Lamport and Co.
12. Meagher's Speeches. Redfield: New-York.

These works are sent to us through J. C. Morgan and J. M. Steel, of New-Orleans, and are works of interest, and many of great literary character and reputation. The mere titles are all that we can give now, but hereafter the works themselves shall be fully noticed.

J. H. Colton, 86 Cedar-street, New-York, proposes soon to issue a work entitled, *A New and Complete Statistical and General Gazetteer of the United States of America, founded on and compiled from Official Federal and State Returns, and the Census of* 1850. By Richard Swainson Fisher, M.D., author of the "Book of the World;" the "Gazetteer of Maryland; a "Statistical Account of America," etc., etc.; also, literary editor of "Colton's American Atlas," and editor of the "American Railway Guide."

A Practical and Scientific Agricultural and Family Journal for the West—The Farmer's Companion and Horticultural Gazette. Edited by C. Fox and C. Betts. J. C. Holmes (Secretary of the State Agicultural Society) Horticultural Editor. Linus Cone, Corresponding Editor.

This journal is published in Detroit, Mich. on the first day of each month. It contains sixteen very large octavo pages, double columns, of good paper and fine print, handsomely illustrated with engravings; together with a colored cover, on which the advertisements are printed. The editors are gentlemen of education, as well as practical men; and the work is intended to elucidate not only the practice, but also the great principles of agriculture, so as to adapt it to all parts of the country. The breeding and raising of horses, cattle, sheep, &c., are especially attended to; and, besides a department devoted to the ladies, interesting general reading is introduced, as far as possible. All the important agricultural periodicals of France and Great Britain are taken and studied for whatever may be of use in the United States; and, monthly, a careful summary of American information is given. Price, fifty cents a-year. Specimen numbers forwarded on request. Single subscriptions may be sent in postage stamps; banknotes for larger amounts. Direct to Charles Betts. Office in the Fireman's Hall, Detroit.

Our readers will be reminded of the Southern Agricultural Convention which is to be held in May next, at Montgomery, by the references we have made to it on another page, and also of the Convention of the South and West at Memphis, on the first Monday of June. We apprehend that other duties will prevent our attendance at either, which we regret. The purposes of the Memphis Convention are said to be the establishemnt of a continental depot of cotton, in opposition to Liverpool.:

The direct exportation of cotton by the planter—thus doing away with middle men, middle warehouses, middle commissions, middle insurances, and all that interminable medium which eats up our substance and concentrates our exports at Liverpool:

To build up a Southern importing market, in opposition to New-York:

To establish, through rail-road alliance, more sympathy with the great West and North-west, socially, commercially, and nationally:

To have one or more lines of steamers to Europe:

To induce emigration through southern ports to pass to the west by a communication always open, expeditious, and cheap; or to settle on our fertile lands:

To stimulate manufactures and general industry.

To educate our children at home, to spend our wealth at home:

To aim at commercial and industrial independence.

OUR FUTURE.

The position which the editor of the *Review* has assumed, at the head of the Census Department at Washington, was assigned to him without solicitation. In acknowledging the honor, he is not unaware of the arduous and responsible duties which devolve upon him, in the performance of which he will be cheered by the single purpose of doing well for the country, and, in some measure, deserving well of it. Time only can show if this aspiration will be realized.

In reference to the *Review*, there will be no change in its editorial, in which he has always had the assistance of able coadjutors; or in the business department, well organized as it is, under experienced and responsible persons. The more extended field which is opened, will rather enlarge and diversify the interests of this *Review;* and whilst its distinctive character as a southern work is preserved, will make it, in many senses, a national one. Already has its circulation extended to every state of the Union.

For every other purpose than the *business* of the *Review*, the address of the editor, until December next, will be Washington City.

Other letters will be addressed simply "*De Bow's Review*," New-Orleans.

There are sub-offices of the *Review* in most of the large cities, where the work, or the *Industrial Resources*, may be obtained, by order; as, for example, at Mobile, of M. Boulmet; at Charleston, B. F. De Bow; at Richmond, J. W. Randolph; at Washington City, Frank Taylor; at New-York, Pudney and Russell; at Boston, Redding and Co., &c. &c.

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DE BOW'S REVIEW:

A MONTHLY JOURNAL

OF

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ART. I.—RECIPROCAL TREATIES OF COMMERCE.

THE PROPOSED CANADIAN RECIPROCITY TREATY—PROPRIETY OF EXTENDING ITS PRIVILEGES TO OTHER COLONIAL POSSESSIONS—THE MISSISSIPPI AND THE AMAZON, AND THE EXTENT OF OUR TRADE WITH SOUTH AMERICAN REPUBLICS, ETC.

[WE are in favor of Canadian reciprocity, and therefore do not, upon that point, agree with the writer of the following paper, furnished for the Review; but, agreeing with him upon many other points, and believing his facts and deductions to be of interest and value, we publish them entire.—EDITOR.]

The subject of reciprocal trade with the British North American Provinces has again been brought to the notice of the public, by the attention recently bestowed upon it at Washington. It is not our purpose—at least at present—to discuss the merits of the question in detail, but to submit a few remarks that have a legitimate bearing on the measure. In popular governments, all laws are presumed to be the expressions of the popular will; and yet, such expressions are but the acts of a ruling majority, in which the governed concur. Hasty and ill-applied legislation is oftener a result, proceeding from deliberative assemblages, chosen by free suffrages, than from bodies on which there are imposed checks, in the form of a power comparatively irresponsible to the people, and supreme in itself. It is for this reason, that in monarchical states, the record of legislative proceedings exhibit fewer interpolations, canceled acts, and restored pages, than do the journal of proceedings of republican councils. Laws are framed with more care, and are abolished with more caution. Judicial tests generally confirm the judgment with which they are created, and the exigencies of the time attest their wholesomeness. The public welfare may demand occasional changes or modifications, and these are made or refused; but ill-advised legislation, in its broad application, is peculiarly the evil of republics. Lobbyism, the clamor of the press, and the argument of petition, are the levers which control our deliberative bodies; for, however well convinced a member may be of the injudiciousness of a measure, he will not dare to defy his constituency, even if he have the moral fortitude to resist the influences which daily beset him on his way to and from his seat.

It is averred—and we are not prepared to dispute the assertion—that there is a large majority in Congress who are in favor of reciprocity with the Canadas. Be it so; but the fact is no proof that one half the American people are in favor of the project. We cannot believe that the southern and southwestern states desire any such exclusive reciprocal interchanges with the provinces, or a nearer intercourse than the nation now enjoys, unless the bill before Congress first undergoes material alteration. The Union is a kindred whole, and not an alliance. Each member is independent, but it is a family in which everything is, or

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should be, conducted with harmony to insure prosperity, and to perpetuate fraternal relations. In our own mind—although we do not ask the reader to indorse the view—reciprocity with the British North American Colonies, without extending the same courtesy to the whole continent and its adjacent islands, would be a most pernicious proceeding, and fraught with social mischief. It will, if carried into effect, be introducing an invidious and distinctive element into our political creed, by avowing national preferences, while our treaties declare that all governments stand with us upon an equal and impartial footing. It will be saying to Europe—a quibble that has already obtained—that this favor we may show to Canada, because Canada is not a treaty-making power, which constitutes an independent nation; but it will be saying to the West India and South American dependencies the same thing, while we refuse to them like concessions. If we can dispose of this objection, which does not amount to an obstacle in the estimation of many statesmen, then we have taken the first step toward the object aimed at. But let us consider farther how such a convention will operate. It will have a tendency to confer benefits on one section of the Union at the expense of the other, by causing trade to flow to the lakes and the northern sea-board outlets, which ought to find its natural outlets at the mouth of the Mississippi and the Atlantic ports of the South. The project is the offspring of monopolies. It originated with gigantic corporations—with rail-road, steamboat, and canal companies, who construct their lines of travel at right angles with the great water-courses of the South and West, and make them converge to and concentrate at Montreal, at Boston, at New-York, and at Philadelphia. These artificial channels intercept the downward trade of the Mississippi and Ohio basins, and cause it to pour forward or recede back to the northern ports. They bring from the West the products of the soil and the workshop, and these find the same destination. Against all this we offer no word of objection, because we are not discussing the full merits of the question. We are simply averring, that if the measure be designed for the benefit of the whole Union, it is incomplete, and should be made more general and comprehensive. If designed for a section, it will prove an evil, and should be defeated.

As regards the isolated question of intrinsic value, there is too much importance attached to the trade of the British North American Possessions.—The object, however, is not revealed in this. The southern and south western states have recently evinced a determination to do much of their own foreign carrying trade. Money is super-abundant, and to be productive it must be invested. The coffers of the money-lending powers overflow, and such as truly need cannot borrow. "Sardinia and Denmark," says the London *Times*, "are the only two borrowing states in Europe that could now raise even small amounts in our markets." And the market of England being overstocked, that paper adds: "Under these circumstances, it is plain, that when the next external rush of capital takes place, it will be to the United States." And no investment, that journal thinks, will yield as fair a per centage as in rail-road stocks. The North, with more available capital than the South, foreseeing the consequences that would ensue to its commerce, if the South established a rail-road system of its own, has anticipated the crisis which the London *Times* foreshadows, and has, in this, sought to preclude the participation of the South. Rail-road companies have been formed, and bands of rail already stretch from Maine to St. Louis, from Chicago to New-York, and cross and re-cross each other, until the whole scheme resembles an iron web, or a labyrinth. The northern sea-board cities have taken care to subscribe largely to these immense improvements, so as to command their termini; and then comes forward the projector, and his revelations are worthy of note. He says to England, "You possess more money than you require. Very well. We need *additional* capital to complete our works. We have had an eye to your interest, as well as our own. By our system of rail-road and artificial water-courses, we will be enabled to reduce the inter-transit duty on cotton, so that it can be landed cheaper in Liverpool, though shipped at New-York, than if exported direct from Charleston, from Mobile, or from New-Orleans.—The reduction on the transportation of food and provisions will be on a corresponding scale." As a further induce-

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ment for the loan, he adds: "We will receive your lumber by way of the Hudson, or through the port of Portland, and land it on your sugar plantations ten per cent. cheaper than it can possibly be delivered there now by way of New-Orleans. We will do more. We will send you Canadian wheat, and thus deprive our own farmers of so much of a market, for what does it matter to us whether we ship to Boston, to New-York, or to Philadelphia, so long as we derive equal benefit from the transportation? Then, again, as Canada wants pork and hams, the provinces will receive these commodities without the payment of customs' duties; and this will lower Canadian labor. We will go still farther. We will——." But we will not pursue the thread of the argument. The next we hear of this compromise of interests, is the advocacy of Canadian reciprocity in the Congressional halls at Washington.

The North has no wish to see the South assume an attitude of commercial independence. It has no intention, if it can prevent the alternative, of allowing the South to become its own burden-carrier, its own importer, and its own exporter. It cannot passively contemplate the withdrawal of the cotton, pork, tobacco, rice, or provision trade, which it now controls. While cotton continues to be the ruling staple of the continent, and England monopolizes the spindles of the world, every national concession expected of us, will be made with a view to conciliate that power first. All this is well; but it goes either too far, or not far enough. Our interests, as we have remarked, are common. We must avoid all sectional feeling, and all extravagant deferences to foreign governments—whether England or Russia—where the object is to enrich one portion of the Union at the expense of the other, and to conciliate a powerful state because it condescends to purchase a commodity from us which it can neither produce nor obtain elsewhere.

Let us come to figures. The domestic exports of the United States amount in value* to $196,689,718. Of this amount, England takes to the value of $105,121,921. Deducting $70,000,000 as the excess of her purchases of cotton over other nations, and $12,000,000 in gold and silver as a similar excess, there is a balance left of $23,121,921. She buys from us commodities to the value of $23,121,921, all prime necessaries of life and needful luxuries, which is less than double the value of the prime necessaries of life and luxuries which we export to the West Indies, the domestic trade with which might be so greatly augmented by a system of reciprocity. The domestic export trade with the West Indies amounts in value to $12,600,875 per annum, while the domestic export trade with Canada does not exceed $5,835,000.

Domestic and British Exports per Annum to all Parts of the World.

	Domestic Exports.	British Exports.
To Europe at large	$157,742,277	$130,060,775
" Asia at large	2,943,887	53,004,165
" Africa at large	1,640,954	14,008,530
" South America on the Atlantic	9,344,731	26,412,320
" South America on the Pacific	1,858,637	10,025,280
" South Seas and Pacific	601,146	14,948,335
" Canada	5,835,834	16,175,255
" Other North American possessions	3,228,268	
" West Indies	12,600,875	17,739,865
" Miscellaneous	893,109	74,464,805

There should be, we think, if our treaties be not nullities, our construction of equity an unmeaning phrase, some favor shown to the governments of our own continent over those of the old world. The principle is not novel.—Customs' unions are formed in Europe, without giving offence to exterior nations, and a like league might be formed by us on a similar basis of principle. It is so common for us to regard the trade of Europe as all-important to our pros-

*Official returns of 1851.

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perity, that to maintain and enlarge it, we are almost willing at times to sow the seeds of contention at home. England, on the contrary, has her trade well diffused over the globe; and by bold enterprise, and the exercise of a lofty spirit, she has pushed her conquests of peace, until her domestic exports now average $360,000,000 per annum. The figures in the foregoing table are in point.

We have on this continent, and in the islands adjacent, an extensive market for the interchanges of commerce, that needs to be fostered to be profitable. From the frozen seas of the North, to the Straits of Magellan, it is one vast and elongated continuity of plateaus, valleys, table-lands, and protecting mountains, of intersecting lakes, and navigable rivers—of rail-roads and canals—of contiguous cities—and of clustering isles. Every habitable zone is embraced within its extreme length, and heat and cold are regulated on isothermal as well as meridian lines. From latitude to latitude, every quality of cultivable soil is found. The products are the products of every hemisphere; and the area of habitable country yet to be occupied by a population as dense as that of Europe, is greater than the whole of Africa. Bathed on one side by the Pacific and on the other by the Atlantic, the continent looks out on Europe and Africa and Asia on the East; and on Asia and Oceanica on the West. What destiny awaits this continent, none can tell; but this we may safely predict, that it will be through an American population and over our own soil, that the nations of the world will hereafter have intercourse and hold intellectual converse.

We conclude this division of the subject by drawing the reader's attention to the subjoined table. It is prepared from official statements of the domestic trade of the United States with the countries named, the domestic exports of Great Britain thereto, the population and square miles thereof, and the number of souls to each square mile. We shall continue the subject more in detail hereafter.

Countries.	Population.	Area of sq. miles.	Pop. to sq. miles.	Domestic Exports to. Value.	Imports from. Value.	British Exports to. Value.
Mexico	7,200,000	1,100,000	7	$1,014,690	$1,804,779	$2,260,000
Central America	1,852,000	204,000	9	223,302	149,856	1,256,000
Venezuela	1,250,000	774,000	1⅔	854,779	2,380,295	1,600,000
New-Granada	2,200,000	330,000	7	2,507,701	695,606	1,650,500
Argentine Republic	1,600,000	927,000	1¾	659,852	3,265,382	4,235,000
Cisplatine Republic	480,000	256,000	2	32,711	19,114	350,000
Brazil	7,560,000	2,300,000	3	3,128,956	11,525,304	12,725,000
Guianas	135,000	136,000	1	671,738	137,582	500,000
Honduras	310,000	72,000	4¼	213,806	174,526	917,000
South America on the Pacific.						
Chili	1,200,000	144,000	8	1,608,877	2,734,746	5,783,000
Peru	1,400,000	524,000	3	249,760	94,733	4,245,000
All other	2,420,000	1,039,000	2	36,196	39,829	475,000
West Indies.						
Hayti	700,000	11,000	64	1,697,372	1,889,968	1,375,000
Cuba	1,200,000	42,363	29	5,239,276	17,046,931	
Swedish West Indies	9,000	25	360	61,157	29,001	
Danish West Indies	43,000	118	360	902,687	255,894	7,590,000*
Dutch West Indies	18,500	590	21¼	366,898	572,430	
British West Indies	800,000	13,000	61	3,903,560	1,003,871	10,200,000
French West Indies	257,000	720	357⅔	289,579	22,909	
Spanish West Indies	359,000	3,865	93	961,410	2,480,329	* Included.
Generally	203,000	18,072	11¼	76,936	25,751	
The Canadas.						
Canada	1,800,000	349,821	5¼	5,835,834	4,956,471	16,175,000
British N. Am. Possessions.	852,000	1,905,000	0.4	3,224,553	1,736,783	
French fisheries	—	—	—	3,715	—	—

We have glanced at the question of continental reciprocity. We have assumed that the domestic trade with the British North American Provinces is by no means so important as interested parties would have us believe. We shall now turn to the gulf commerce, and will show that it is no exaggeration to say, that the great sea midway between the Americas is more essential to the welfare of the United States, than is the Mediterranean to Europe, to Asia, and

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to Africa. If we can establish this point, then it must at once be admitted, that, as a matter of expediency, reciprocity with the Canadas should be immediately followed or preceded by reciprocity with South America and its territorial appendages and islands, and with the West Indies, and the isles of the Pacific contiguous to the continent.

That which should first be considered, as regards the commercial value of a sea, is its physical character, the protection its harbors afford to shipping, its form or configuration, the natural features and productiveness of the countries which bound it, its currents and climate, but mainly the number, navigable condition, and courses of the rivers that fall into it. Secondly, accessibility to the great ocean highway, distance to be passed over in going and returning; distances to be overcome in visiting from port to port; and, finally, contiguity to the markets of the world.

The Red Sea, comparatively speaking, is of no commercial value: it is hardly sought as an interoceanic communication with the Mediterranean. It has no great rivers falling into it It drains no valleys, no basins, no lands, that might send forward their products to be borne upon its bosom to ready markets. Along its banks no cities have risen to maritime opulence; commerce would perish if planted there. Its waters are received from a mysterious source, and come and go but to feed the Indian ocean. Few vessels ride upon it, or are urged by its winds; and only such are impelled over its surface as bear the slaves of Massonah to Egyptian harems, or African pilgrims to the shrine of Mecca. How different would its uses be, if, from the hills of Abyssinia, the shores of the Persian Gulf, the valley of the Nile, or the basins of the Euphrates, an Amazon, a Mississippi, a Hudson, or an Orinoco, poured into it, and united the trade of three continents.

Commerce and navigation have changed their principles and character with the revolutions of time, of states, and the spread and progress of population and civilization. Around the name of the Mediterranean there lingers a classic association, and we venerate it for its past services, when on its bosom rode the argosies of the world, and the trade of both hemispheres located on its shores. Cyprus and Syracuse, Carthage and Utica, Memphis and Tripolis, Antioch and Smyrna, Alexandria and Ptolemais, Tyre, Sidon and Joppa, are names as familiar for their commercial grandeur as for the glory of their arms, their conquests of peace, or the wealth, on which their civic greatness was founded.—But the commerce of antiquity, great as it was for the time or era, was nothing in comparison to the trade of a single city a few hundred years later. And great as was this latter trade, what was it, in all its vigor, to the trade of London, or Liverpool, or New-York now? The commercial magnitude of the ancient Mediterranean ports cannot be traced in their ruins; but one thing we are assured of, that the cities of the Adriatic and the Mediterranean, together, do not afford employment for as much tonnage as does the port of New-York alone.

But this has little to do with the question of the commercial value of the Mediterranean. Cities may crumble on its shores, its bays may fill with mud and vegetable aggregations; and states decay that once ruled it. All this may evince a degeneracy of people, a want of enterprise, the operation of unwise laws, a corrupting government—it may be a result of devastating wars, or a transfer of commercial power and dominion consequent upon the spread of population, and the discovery of new mediums of supply, and new channels of intercourse. But the countries remain. The rivers that poured their floods into the Baltic, into the Propontis, and into the Ægean, and which supplied the Mediterranean on the North, flow on still. The great arteries of three continents, the Danube, the Euphrates, and the Nile, which drained their valleys a thousand years ago, drain them now. It is because commerce has changed its principles, and navigation its character, that the Mediterranean is not what it was. Discovery has swept past the natural order and development of things. It has created necessities, and it has surmounted former obstacles. We traverse the ocean with steam and travel the earth with iron horses. Speed is everything, whether in the plow or the anvil, the common wagon or the rail-road carriage, the sail-rigged ship or the leviathan steamer.

The Mediterranean is a sea of seas—of peninsulas and headlands—of archipelagos and deeply-indented bays. A

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journey may be made by land from Genoa to Venice in a few hours, and from Durazzo to Salonica in two or three days. To make the voyages between these ports with a sail-vessel, requires the lapse of many weeks, and sometimes the delay of months. On the contrary, the journeys soonest made from one port to another on the coast of the Gulf of Mexico, are those which are undertaken by sea-voyages. A vessel proceeding from the Atlantic up the Mediterranean, and taking a cargo in the Black Sea of the productions of Western Asia or Central Europe—or at the mouth of the Nile, of the productions of Egypt—or at the port of Venice, of the productions of France or Germany, cannot clear the Straits of Gibraltar on a return trip under two months. The sinuosities of shore-line measure 14,000 miles; the shore-line of the Gulf of Mexico—clear as it is of projections and other interruptions to navigation—measures but 5,500 miles. While a vessel coasts along a shore-line of 14,000 miles, collecting a promiscuous cargo of the production of 2,000.000 square miles, a vessel may make the entire coast of the Gulf of Mexico, (5,500 miles,) receive a cargo of the productions of 4,000,000 square miles, and be under way, in the broad ocean, nine thousand miles in advance of the other; or, a vessel in the gulf may take in a cargo on the coast and deposit it in the port of New-Orleans, return and deposit a second cargo, before a vessel, sailing up the Mediterranean, can again make the Atlantic and spread its sails in search of a market. Key West and Gibraltar are the gateways that interlock the granaries of the Gulf of Mexico and the Mediterranean. East and west of these is the Atlantic, and it is only on its heaving billows that the strife of rivalry begins. The seas locked within are the recipients of the elements of commerce—nothing more—and that sea which has the advantage of proximity to the ocean, of greatest extent of bounding country, of variety and quality of production, and superiority of inland navigation, is the sea that does, and always must, take precedence of all others. Such is the Gulf of Mexico. There is, too, this point to be considered: The products of Southern Europe, of Western Asia, and of Northern Africa, which seek the ocean by the Mediterranean, are the surplus of the products which these countries reject. The local supply being a surfeit, consumers must be sought for elsewhere—in the East, in the South Seas, in the remote Indies, or on this continent. But for all the productions that are borne to or from the gulf, there is a market almost at hand. Brazil, the Plata States, Central America, Equador, Venezuela, and the West Indies, need of the products that are carried down the Mississippi; and New Orleans, Charleston, Baltimore, Philadelphia, New-York and Boston require for domestic consumption and exchange the bulk of the products that are sent forward by the rivers of South America into the gulf.

It is no departure from truth to aver, that the basins tributary to the Gulf of Mexico are more extensive, prolific in natural productions, and the productions more varied in character and of greater agricultural value, than may be said of all the basins in the world beside. The annexed table will serve to illustrate this fact, so far as square miles are concerned:

Basins in the World, drained by Rivers, having a Sea or Ocean Outlet.

THE OLD WORLD.

Basin of the	Mediterranean	1,160,000	sq. m.
"	Nile	520,000	"
"	Euphrates	196,000	"
"	Indus	312,000	"
"	Ganges	432,000	"
"	Irawaddy	331,000	"
"	Others of India	173,000	"
"	Rhine & West. Europe	730,000	"
Total		3,854,000	"

THE NEW WORLD.

Basin of the	Mississippi	982,000	sq. m.
"	Florida and Texas	520,000	"
"	Mexico & Cen. Am.	300,000	"
"	Amazon	1,796,000	"
"	Orinoco, &c	760,000	"
Total		4,298,000	"

The valley of the Amazon is but a continuation of the valley of the Mississippi; and its waters, by the laws which govern tides, are caused to flow, not into the ocean first, but into the gulf. The Orinoco, which is an arm of that majestic flood, empties into the Caribbean direct. Hence the valley of the Amazon is but a continuation of the basin of the Mississippi; and their draining rivers all fall into the gulf before they flow out into the Atlantic. But it is needless to dwell longer on the external value of the two seas. Any farther comparison

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may be confined to a few words. The productions brought down from the basins of the old world, do not return to them. The staples of the Indus and Ganges make long voyages to Europe or Eastern Asia; the surplus products of the basins of Western Europe are borne to markets far beyond the Indian seas; and the products of the valleys drained by the rivers that pour into the Mediterranean, are conveyed oceanward thousands of miles to all hemispheres. The great basins of the Americas are all drained towards the gulf; and the ocean market is then at hand.

We have next to consider the physical character of the countries through which our rivers course. The Mississippi River, which is peculiarly our own, is the ventricle of the Union. It is capable of absorbing and digesting all the products of labor that may be poured into it. Taking its rise in the latitude of fifty degrees north, in the region of snows and exalted mountains, where the climates are suited to the growth of wheat and barley, and the hardy cereals—in the region of valuable forests and animal furs—it runs south, crossing thirty degrees of latitude, and changing with every mile its temperature and the character of the staples that are produced on its banks. "Having," says an eloquent writer, in speaking of this noble river, "left behind it the regions for peltries, wheat, and corn; for hemp and tobacco; for pulse, apples, whisky, oil and cotton; and having crossed the pastoral lands for hogs, horses, and cattle, it reaches, near the thirtieth degree of latitude, the northern verge of the sugar-cane. Thence expanding out in the gulf, with all these productions on its bosom, it passes on to Key West and the Tortugas, and delivers up to the winds and waves of the ocean the fruits of its teeming soil and multitudinous climes." Then comes in the valley of the Amazon. Taking up the agricultural productions and staples which the Mississippi had just reached, and pushing the variety beyond the equator, it increases, and far down in another hemisphere diversifies the wonderful assortment, until sugar and rice, coffee and indigo, drugs and spices, cocoa and cotton, cochineal and tobacco, india-rubber, dyewoods, peltries, flax and wool—everything, in short, that is grown on earth, or produced from its bowels—is reached and disseminated through the vast basins which thus stretch, on meridian and latitudinal lines far north and south of the tropics, into the temperate zones.

Whatever causes supervene to deprive the Mississippi, as a burden-route, of its proper downward share of the domestic products of the country—whether trade is forced from its banks to the northern ports by enterprise and artificial mediums, or the foreign demand for our staples, by way of New-Orleans, is on the wane—of one thing we may be certain, that it needs but the effort to make that city one of the greatest entrepots on the globe. Its commercial position is unrivaled, and its climate daily improves. The continent, south of it, is yet to be explored, its resources to be developed, its riches and their variety to be unfolded. Three hundred millions of people ask to be admitted to communion and intercourse with six hundred millions west of us, who are shut out by an isthmus, only twenty-six miles in width. A hundred millions of dollars have already been expended or devoted to the work of leveling this barrier, of constructing rail-roads from the Atlantic to the Pacific, of tunneling mountains, digging canals, clearing out once navigable streams, of building highways which are to penetrate into and traverse the interior, and of laying the foundations of Anglo-Saxon cities on the sites of Indian villages. Steam has commuted time, and brought about a speedier and nearer relationship of Europe with America, and both with the East, than could have been accomplished by the ordinary sailing-vessel for a hundred years later. By a census of the Central and South American states, the increase of Caucasian population thereof, for seventy years was not greater than has been the increase of pure white population within the three years last past. And the influences that will inevitably work a restoration of the political, moral, and social condition of the South American states (and they have much to redeem)—that will lead to advancement in the arts and sciences, and to physical progress—will operate with the same results in the West Indies and the islands which belong to the continent. Let once the seed of Anglo-Saxon enterprise be sown, as it has been, to some extent, in Central America and south of the Amazon, it,

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will take root in a prolific soil, and give forth an abundant yield.

In a preceding table, we have supplied figures showing the extent and value of our domestic trade with the above countries. In the table below, marked A, we have collected from authentic sources the amount of the principal articles we import from thence; and in table B is shown the value or amount of the leading domestic articles we export thereto. The diversity, more than the magnitude, deserves attention. The whole view, however, evinces a healthfulness of condition in our commercial relations with the governments south of New-Orleans, and a decided and increasing augmentation, which every interchange of commodities tends to improve.

[A.]

Articles.	West Indies.	British Honduras.	Cuba.	Hayti.	Mexico.	Central America.
Tobacco.....lbs..	59,292....	——	3,396,796....	329,052....	20,730....	419
Cigars .....M..	797,000....	——	162,904,000....	14,000....	2,211,000....	43,000
Indigo.....lbs..	6,893....	28,440....	13,144....	301....	18,709....	26,962
Tallow.....lbs..	14,557....	——	——	——	——	——
Brown sugar .....lbs..	57,963,435	——	275,327,497....	99,073....	——	337,246
Cocoa .....lbs..	104,791....	——	32,898....	778,533....	188....	23,039
Molasses .....gallons..	4,090,023....	——	31,578,462....	2,116....	——	9,322
Wool.....lbs..	45,312....	7,897....	10....	1,720....	270....	——
Raw hides .....value..	$427,296....	452....	5,379....	30,983....	180,762....	40,275
Mahogany, cedar, & other ..val	$5,808....	33,820....	97,580....	127,607....	1,431....	1,688
Dyewoods .....value..	$24,482....	5,313....	11,505....	260,868....	98,591....	21,721
Copper.....value..	$52,939....	2,227....	2,331....	1,640....	176....	48
Hats, &c .....value..	$64,882	——	674....	——	12,264....	101
Coffee.....lbs..	1,834,985....	——	3,099,084....	13,205,766	291,319....	654
Gold and silver .. ..value..	$98,863....	15,692....	338,918....	111,183....	1,043,993....	17,670

Articles.	New-Granada.	Venezuela.	Brazil.	Cis. Republic.	Argentine Republic.	Chili.	Peru.	Equador.
Tobacco .....lbs..	112,201..	11,967..	28,912..	—— ..	—— ..	23,705..	—..	——
Cigars.....M..	448,000..	24,000..	69,000..	—— ..	5,000..	—— ..	—..	——
Indigo .....lbs..	1,247..	117,084..	—— ..	—— ..	—— ..	3,600..	—..	——
Tallow .....lbs..	—— ..	—— ..	—— ..	—— ..	185,019..	—— ..	—..	——
Brown sugar .....lbs..	4,371..	416,682..	14,557,699..	—— ..	350.	—— ..	—..	——
Cocoa.....lbs..	13,901..	39,516..	747,922..	—— ..	—— ..	97,400..	—..	204,852
Molasses .....gallons..	—— ..	2,879..	—— ..	—— ..	—— ..	—— ..	—..	——
Wool.....lbs..	—— ..	8,569 .	400,844..	306..	12,106,536..	2,109,846..	—..	——
Raw hides. .....value..	$58,902..	703,331..	1,181,182..	16,774..	1,714,105..	81,786..	6,709..	353
Mahogany, cedar, and other.....value	$364..	700..	118,968..	—— ..	476..	1,145..	—..	——
Dyewoods .....value..	$58,982..	28,856..	—— ..	—— ..	—— ..	50,367..	—..	656
Copper .....value..	$79..	3,773..	3,446..	—— ..	—— ..	1,367,191..	—..	——
Hats, &c..... ....value..	$9,469..	21,228..	1,011..	—— ..	—— ..	55,447..	751..	18,837
Coffee .....lbs..	94,419..	17,589,447..	107,578,257..	—— ..	—— ..	103,899..	—..	10,484
Gold and silver . .....val.	$495,758..	36,584..	6,511..	—— ..	—— ..	774..	—..	——

[B.]

Articles.	West Indies.	British Honduras.	Cuba.	Hayti.	Mexico.	Central America.
Whale oil..... ....gallons..	43,440....	64....	164,094....	5,937....	4,400....	126
Sperm candles..... ... .lbs..	27,109....	4,471....	56,925....	15,656....	48,652....	——
Fish.....value..	$91,829....	473....	94,345....	216,112....	2,347....	1,169
Wood, &c.....value..	$497,800....	6,752....	410,498....	66,645	9,378....	8,399
Wood, manufactured .....value..	$227,880....	4,840....	1,394,579....	4,410....	17,132....	39,116
Provisions, &c .....value..	$948,562....	30,548....	930,958....	339,676....	60,040....	9,124
Breadstuffs..... .....value..	$1,460,390....	36,997....	804,277....	239,482....	6,150....	17,592
Soap and candles ....value..	$244,938....	7,938....	105,422....	114,166....	1,362..	2,556
Cotton manufacture ..... .value..	$109,827....	45,228....	25,711....	296,111....	111,072....	65,997
Non-enumerated—Manufactured	$68,292....	6,876.. ..	450....	66,496....	8,878....	122,947
" Raw	$74,923....	3,462....	67,899....	5,303....	12,729....	2,367

Articles.	New-Granada.	Venezuela.	Brazil.	Cis. Republic.	Arg. Republic.	Chili.	Peru.	Equador.
Whale oil ....gallons..	574..	1,361..	2,849..	60..	280..	2,041..	540..	——
Sperm candles ....lbs..	17,446..	23,989..	35,591..	315..	8,772..	182,198..	7,896..	——
Fish.....value..	$4,333..	1,407..	3,443..	—— ..	1,077..	20..	100..	——
Wood, &c.....value..	$32,421..	5,256..	28,778..	3,552..	72,366..	12,366..	528..	——
Wood, manufactured.....value..	$82,267..	8,480..	19,914..	162..	22,354..	24,430..	4,013..	——
Provisions, &c.....value..	$70,507..	34,203..	11,217..	2,595..	7,356..	112,757..	17,009..	——
Breadstuffs .....value..	$63,739..	216,081..	2,040,607..	22,503..	168,751..	87,194..	12,089..	——
Soap and candles..... ....value..	$12,287..	22,684..	16,868..	254..	2,343..	6,665..	289..	——
Cotton manufacture .....value..	$74,340..	95,410..	613,403..	—— ..	84,512..	850,703..	38,279..	——
Non-enumerated—Manufact'd	$22.152..	36,780..	—— ..	25,111..	33,842..	8,926..	13,252..	——
" Raw	$30,415..	8,699..	24,573..	745..	5,959..	11,670..	1,035..	——

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The Amazon is the ventricle of South America, as the Mississippi is of the United States. It takes its rise in ten degrees thirty minutes south latitude, in the lake Launchoca, and flows for a distance in two branches—the Tunguragua and the Ucayale—until, forming a junction, and uniting with it other rivers, it at last empties into the Atlantic, almost under the equator. Its entire distance has been computed at 4,700 miles, and it has an inland navigation, by connecting tributaries, of over 70,000 miles! Its basin—although we have adopted the common estimate of 1,796,000 square miles—is said to exceed 2,400,000 square miles. Rising at the eastern base of the Andes, within sixty miles of the Pacific, in the heart of Peru, one branch of this majestic river follows a course due north to Jaen, in the State of Equador, thence through the southern provinces of Equador, eastwardly, until a junction is formed with the Ucayale, gathering in its way the rivers and streamlets of the Andes, and draining a country—yet almost in a state of nature—among the richest in precious metals and agricultural fertility on the globe. The Ucayale runs northeast, through the southern provinces of Peru, and in its course is also fed by numerous tributaries. After its junction with the Tunguragua, they roll together their floods, connecting the navigable streams of Bolivia, Peru, Equador, New Granada, and the Guianas; and finally they receive the voluminous waters of the Madeira, a river of the first class, which takes its rise in the vicinity of Potosi, and courses in solitude through the unexplored regions, unpeopled valleys, and dismal forests of Brazil, until it is discharged into the Amazon, two thousand miles from its source. Thence the three branches, united, pursue their way in majesty to the ocean. This union is the Amazon. Absorbing in its swollen bosom the head streams of Paraguay, and the whole range of country bounded by the Andes, the Gulf of Mexico, and the Caribbean, affording a navigation of 70,000 miles, this great river is entirely shut up to foreign commerce, and is still, at the option of the Brazilian government, to be opened to the enterprise and rivalry of nations. Of the countries which it drains, it may be more truly said than of any other:

> "Stern winter smiles on this auspicious clime,
> The fields are florid in eternal prime;
> From the bleak pole no winds inclement blow,
> Mould the round hail, or flake the fleecy snow,
> But from the breezy deep the groves inhale
> The fragrant murmurs of the *Eastern* gale."

From the twentieth degree of south latitude to the twelfth degree of north latitude, all the rivers of South America, except such as drain the narrow strip of land on the Pacific, bounded on the east by the Andes, flow, as we have said, into the Gulf of Mexico. Nor is there a basin in the world, in which the navigable streams are so numerous, so diverse in their courses, so available in dispensing with artificial mediums of intercourse and communication. The Orinoco, which is an arm of the Amazon, takes up in its course the upper waters of New-Granada and Venezuela; and far down, beyond the equator, the Paraguay and the Parana, whose sources almost connect with the sources of the Madeira, bear the rich fruits of Buenos Ayres and Uruguay to the mouth of the Plata. It is impossible to conceive that the basins of South America, teeming with mineral treasures and agricultural products, overflowing with rivers and lakes, and enjoying every degree of temperature and salubrity, can long remain under the sole dominion of a semi-civilized people, or be the exclusive habitation of half savages, who luxuriate in indolence, or rove over the pampas and llanos in predatory hordes. Every impulse of reason combats such an opinion.

Three miles of cutting through a level and marshy country on the south-eastern frontier of Bolivia, would give to the former the command of an interoceanic route of four thousand miles. One outlet would be the mouth of the Plata; the other, the mouth of the Amazon. Three miles of cutting would allow of a vessel of light tonnage to start from the mouth of the Orinoco, on the Caribbean, and navigate through Venezuela, New-Granada, and down the Amazon to its mouth; up the Amazon to Peru, and down through the northern provinces of Brazil to the Madeira; and down the Madeira to the Paraguay, and down this river to Montevideo; and up again to the Parana; and up the Parana through southern Brazil, to within sixty miles of Rio Janeiro, inland. But three miles of cutting is required to

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open the whole of South America to ship navigation, and to bring its entire products into the Gulf of Mexico.

The export trade of these countries is in its infancy. It does not exceed $10,0000,000 per annum, viz:

Domestic exports of Mexico, (annual average)	$18,000,000
Domestic exports of New-Granada	2,800,000
" " Venezuela	4,000,000
Central America	4,000,000
Bolivia (local)	—
Equador	900,000
Peru	9,000,000
Uruguay	3,000,000
Buenos Ayres	6,500,000
The Guianas	8,000,000
Brazil	43,000,000

The trade of Mexico is declining, owing to the exhaustion of her precious mines, her inability to pay for foreign goods, the frightful contrabandism that prevails, and the political instability of the supreme government, still further weakened by the constant defection of its provinces. A splendid traffic, however, might still be carried on with foreign nations, by exchanging, (instead of silver and platina,) cochineal, indigo, leather, sarsaparilla, vanilla, jalap, soap, logwood, pimento, &c., for fabrics and merchandise, which the nation cannot dispense with, but which are principally smuggled into the state, causing a loss of revenue to the national treasury, and still contributing to the prostration of the country. The moral, political and commercial condition of Mexico is desperate in the extreme. What it may become under future dynasties, the hereafter will reveal.

The trade of Central America, and its rapid augmentation, is an evidence of the spirit of enterprise that has been infused into it by Anglo-Saxon contact and example. The commerce of the states, foreign and coastwise, is estimated at $20,000,000 annually; the domestic exports alone amounting, as stated, to $4,000,000, namely:

Articles.	Guatemala.	San Salvador.	Honduras.	Nicaragua.	Costa Rica.
Indigo	$23,000	$800,000	$16,000	$35,000	$ —
Cochineal	800,000	—	—	—	—
Gold and silver	40,000	40,000	700,000	—	300,000
Sarsaparilla	8,500	—	66,000	12,000	44,000
Dyewoods	11,000	—	—	700,000	220,000
Hides	11,000	38,000	8,000	12,000	25,000
Mahogany	6,000	—	—	21,000	—
Peruvian bark	—	16,000	—	—	—
Sugar	—	7,000	—	—	21,000
Coffee	—	—	—	—	81,000
Tortoise shells	—	6,000	50,000	—	—
Cattle	—	—	23,000	—	—
Total	$900,500	$907,000	$863,000	$780,000	$691,000

Total (without including minor articles) $4,141,500

Proceeding south, the state of Venezuela comes next. The export trade of this country, which abounds with all the elements of wealth, equals the export trade of all the states of Central America, and is susceptible of an almost unlimited expansion. The principal items shipped alone are:

Coffee	$1,300,000
Cocoa	800,000
Indigo	550 000
Dyewoods	750,000
Tobacco, hides, baize, &c	1,000,000
Other commodities	300,000
Total	$4,025,000

Proceeding coastwise, we next arrive at the Guianas. Their commerce is of far greater magnitude than the reader might be disposed to credit. Their export trade amounts annually in value to $8,000,000, as follows.:

BRITISH GUIANA.	
Sugar	$3,400,000
Rum	722,000
Molasses	304,000
Coffee	134,000
Cotton	55,000
All other	55,000
Total	$5,000,000

DUTCH GUIANA.	
Sugar	$1,250,000
Coffee	320,000
All other	430,000
Total	$2,000,000

FRENCH GUIANA.	
Raw sugar	$280,000
Molasses	14,000
Cocoa	6,000
Coffee	6,000
Cloves	60,000
Pepper	8,000
Cabinet wood	40,000
Cotton	163,000
Arnotto	161,000
Rum	6,000
All other	316,000
Total	$1 000,000

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First, beyond the equator, we come to Brazil. The domestic exports of this state are:

Hides	$2,000,000
Coffee	17,000,000
Cotton	5,000,000
Sugar	12,000,000
Dyewoods	1,000,000
All other	3,000,000
Total	$40,000,000

Uruguay, the last of the states north of the Plata, exports as follows:

Ox and cow hides	number	430,000
Horse-hides	number	60,000
Horns	number	560,000
Hair	arrobas	18,000
Wool	arrobas	34,000
Tallow	arrobas	36,000
Beef	quintals	200,000
Grease	arrobas	7,000
Sheep-skins	number	17,000
Nutria-skins	number	6,000

Proceeding up the Paraguay, we reach the frontiers of Bolivia. This state is entirely shut in from the Pacific; but it has a navigable water course to the Atlantic by the Amazon. Three miles of cutting, as stated, would also give them command of a river route to the mouth of the Plata. The inhabitants are not naturally indolent; but their want of enlightenment, which only can be had by frequent and general intercourse with the world, retards the development of their inherent energies. Their trade is entirely local. They neither import nor export, except through contiguous countries; and statistics of this trade we are not in possession of.

Buenos Ayres, which is south of the Plata river, and intercepts the trade of the Paraguay and Parana rivers, exports:

Gold and silver	value	$600,000
Ox-hides	value	4,000,000
Jerked beef	value	500,000
Horse hair	value	$250,000
Sheep's wool	value	400,000
Chinchilla and nutria skins	value	150,000
Tallow	value	160,000
Sheep-skins	value	150,000
All other	value	290,000
Total		$6,500,000

The domestic exports of Peru are:

Bark	value	$320,000
Copper	value	80,000
Cotton	value	240,000
Bullion, &c.	value	6,000,000
Hides	value	30,000
Skins	value	40,000
Wool, &c.	value	500,000
All other	value	1,790,000
Total		$9,000,000

The domestic trade of Equador is growing. It already includes 70,000,000 pounds of cocoa a year, and the demand exceeds the supply. The exports of the state are principally

Cocoa	value	$490,000
Timber, &c	value	200,000
All other	value	210,000
Total		$900,000

Finally, as we return toward the Isthmus, we pass through New-Granada, the exports of which are principally the precious metals, bearing a proportion to all other commodities, as follows:

Precious metals	value	$1,700,000
All other commodities	value	300,000
Total		$2,000,000

If we are to have reciprocity, let it be a reciprocity founded in justice to the whole Union—that will invite the products of the basins of the continent to seek one great midway sea—and not a reciprocity confined to a single section, and designed to benefit but a single interest.

ART. II.—NEW-YORK IN EIGHTEEN HUNDRED AND FIFTY-TWO—FIFTY-THREE.

PROGRESS OF THE STATE—COMMERCE OF THE CITY—RAIL-ROADS—CANALS—EXPENDITURES—DISEASES—MORTALITY—PRICES AND RECEIPTS OF COMMODITIES—SOURCES OF POPULATION AND IMMIGRATION, ETC.

We had occasion last autumn, when speaking of the approaching World's Fair, in New-York, to express our opinion upon the causes which have led to the empire greatness of that city, and to commend the wide and liberal policy which she has pursued. On previous occasions we presented the facts and statistics of her growth from year to year, and many speculations pertaining to her future, all of which were condensed into the volumes of the *Industrial Resources*. Nothing remains now but to add to this material the facts and figures of the year which has closed, in order to make it complete upon almost all of the

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points to which either interest or instruction can attach, and we are enabled to obtain these from the voluminous reports of the Herald, the Courier and Enquirer, and official papers before us.

We begin with some particulars relating to the state, for which we are indebted to the late annual message of Governor Seymour:

The number of patients in the State Asylum at Utica was:

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Commencement of the year	220	215	435
Admitted during the year	200	190	390
Total number treated	420	405	825

There have been discharged during the year:

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Recovered	92	64	156
Much improved	7	4	11
Improved	21	21	42
Unimproved	63	89	152
Died	22	17	39
Total	205	195	400

We have received the following statement in reference to the Lunatic Asylum on Blackwell's Island:

Remaining in the Asylum on the 1st Jan., 1852		517
Admitted from 1st Jan. to 18th Dec., 1852		488
		1,005
Discharged during the same period	341	
Died	128	
		469
Remaining, December 18, 1852		562

Of those admitted, 99 were natives, and 389 foreigners.

Of those discharged, 71 were natives, and 270 foreigners.

Of those who died, 29 were natives, and 99 foreigners.

The number of pupils now in the New-York Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb, is two hundred and fifty-nine; of this number one hundred and eighty-five are supported by the state. At the last session of the legislature, the number of pupils thus supported was increased thirty-two, adding one from each senate district—making the whole number of state beneficiaries one hundred and ninety-two. This institution continues to improve its system of instruction, to increase the value of its results, and to gain in the estimation of the public.

The Institution for the Blind is successfully conducted. There are one hundred and fifty-three blind persons in the establishment; forty-two are employed in the workshops. The introduction of new trades has been attended with great advantage to the inmates. The imposition of heavy assessments for grading the streets around the buildings of the institution, will require increased pecuniary aid from the legislature.

We have the following statement from the commissioners of emigration:

Whole number of aliens who arrived at the port of New-York, May 5th, 1847, 1,336,960.

Number arrived during this year, up to December 15th, 295,272.

Number of persons admitted to Immigrant Refuge Hospital, Ward's Island, during the year, about 15,000.

Number of persons admitted to Marine Hospital, Staten Island, 8,511.

Number of persons relieved in the various counties in the state, and chargeable upon the commutation fund, about 13,138.

Number of persons lodged and relieved temporarily in the city, 18,391.

Number of persons for whom employment was found in the city, various parts of the state, and in other states, from the office in this city under the charge of commissioners, 14,612.

Number of persons forwarded to various places at expense of commissioners, 4,962.

Number of persons for whom special bonds have been demanded during the year, under the amended act of July, 1851, about 1,000.

The commissioners state that six years' experience has shown that the commutation of $1 50 for each person is sufficient to provide for the support of the poor and helpless emigrant, but not enough to cover the expenses of procuring buildings for their reception.—Since May, 1847, the state has been relieved from all expense of both sick and destitute from abroad. Large numbers of emigrants have been aided in getting employment here, or in going to other states where their labor was in greater demand. The commission is indebted $170,000 for land and the erection of buildings.

On the 30th of September the public funds devoted to education amounted to the following sums:

The Common-School Fund	$2,354,530 00
" United States Deposit Fund	4,014,420 00
" Literature Fund	272,980 92
	$6,641,930 92

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These funds are securely and productively invested. In 1851, there were 11,737 school districts in the state.

The returns for the years 1850 and 1851, show the condition and progress of our common school-system.

Number of pupils in 1850–'51.

	1850.	1851.
The number of pupils attending the district schools was. ...	726,281..	862,507
The number attending private schools was	43,520..	31,767
The number of schools for colored children was	105..	——
The number of pupils attending them was	5,305..	4,416
Pupils instructed in the district schools during the whole year.....	7,035..	8,765
Pupils instructed ten months and less than twelve	43,306..	39,059
Ditto eight months and less than ten	59,962..	68,742
Ditto six months and less than eight.....	110,981..	125,745
Ditto four months and less than six.....	170,005..	178,330
Ditto two months and less than four	212,578..	211,367
Ditto less than two months....	196,561..	200,473
Number of volumes in school-district libraries.....	1,507,077..	1,570,131

	1850.	1851.
Amount paid for teachers' wages.....	$1,350,345 92..	$1,681,316 00
Amount paid for district libraries.....	89,104 96..	90,579 50
The total amount expended for common schools was	$1,884,826 16..	$2,249,814 02
Amount paid for building and repairing school-houses, &c..	445,164 28..	477,918 51

From these statistics it appears that about one quarter of the population of the state are receiving, in our district schools, the education that is to fit them to perform their duties as citizens of our republic. Their characters and success in life will be greatly influenced by the kind of instruction they receive in these schools. We cannot estimate their importance too highly. They will exert a vast, perhaps a controlling, influence upon the future prosperity of our country. Every consideration of prudence, patriotism, and benevolence, demands that our common-school system should be encouraged and supported, that the employment of competent teachers may be secured. This could be done by giving them a just compensation for their services, and by a proper appreciation, on the part of the legislature and the public, of the dignity and value of their labors.

In preparing and training competent teachers for our schools, the State Normal School, and the departments for the education of the common-school teachers in the academies, exercise an important influence. These are understood to be in a flourishing condition. The Norman School has more pupils than at any preceding period.

The number of convicts in the prisons of the state is as follows:

At Sing-Sing	869
At Auburn	759
In Clinton county.....	155
Total	1,783

This is an increase of sixty-nine above the returns of last year. The number of female convicts is about eighty.

The expense of maintaining the prisoners beyond the amount of their earnings, with the cost of indispensable improvements, will make the following appropriations necessary.

For the prison at Auburn	$14,000
" Sing-Sing.....	7,000
" in Clinton county.....	27,000
Total	$48,000

The officers are confident that after the contemplated improvements are paid for, these establishments will sustain themselves. The annual report of the inspectors will contain a detailed and interesting statement of the expenses and condition of these prisons.

Great interest is felt by a large class of our mechanics in the success of the Clinton Prison. The character of the labor of the convicts at that place conflicts less with the interests of some of our citizens, than the employments pursued in the other prisons. This establishment has heretofore been quite expensive to the state, and has been regarded as an unsuccessful experiment. The prisoners have been engaged in digging, separating, and preparing iron ores for the use of the neighboring furnaces. The depressed state of iron manufactures has lessened the demand for the ore, and the prices at which it is sold. The original plan of the prison contemplated the erection of the necessary works for making iron, and manufacturing it into some of its ruder forms. The legislature, at its last session, made an appropriation for furnaces for smelting and manufacturing iron. These are not yet completed, but they will soon be

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finished, at a cost not exceeding the amount appropriated.

The inspector in charge of the prison is confident that when the establishment is completed, according to its original design, it will give a revenue to the state beyond the cost of maintaining it.

The number of banks, banking institutions, and individuals doing banking business, in the state, is 277; being an increase of 33 over last year. The chartered banks have been reduced from 72 to 70. Banking associations have increased 23, and individual banks 12.—The number of free banking corporations in the state is now 118, and of individual banks 89. These free banks have received from the comptroller for issue notes amounting to $19,150,056, which is an increase of $3,488,052 since December, 1851. The bank circulation of the state was, on the first of December last, $58,790,985 against $27,254,458 in September, 1851.

Arrivals at New-York of vessels from foreign ports, together with the number of passengers arrived, for the year ending December 31, inclusive:—

	Steamships.	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schooners.	Total.
American	157	802	410	634	297	2,300
British	49	82	252	407	221	1,013
Bremen	—	29	62	31	3	125
French	—	—	9	9	—	18
Austrian	—	5	2	2	—	9
Swedish	—	2	7	30	2	41
Norwegian	—	2	12	28	1	43
Sicilian	—	—	8	10	1	19
Hamburgh	—	18	25	5	—	48
Danish	—	2	7	10	—	19
Russian	—	2	8	4	—	14
Belgian	—	7	12	1	8	20
Dutch	—	—	8	5	—	22
Neapolitan	—	—	1	3	—	4
Prussian	—	2	18	14	—	34
Sardinian	—	—	1	3	—	4
Genoese	—	—	—	4	—	4
Mecklenburgh	—	—	1	6	—	7
Italian	—	—	2	7	—	9
Spanish	—	1	2	2	—	5
Lubec	—	—	1	1	—	2
Oldenburgh	—	—	8	7	2	17
Columbian	—	—	—	1	—	1
Portuguese	—	—	1	14	7	23
Mexican	—	—	—	1	—	1
Venezuelian	—	—	—	4	—	4
Hanoverian	—	—	3	6	2	12
Brazilian	—	—	—	3	—	3
Bavarian	—	—	—	1	—	1
Total	206	956	860	1253	544	*3,228

The whole number of passengers arrived during the same period:

From Foreign Ports	310,335
From California	12,158
Total	322,493

* Including two (one Dutch and one Hanoverian) galliots and one (Portuguese) yacht.

Number of passengers for the last thirteen years:

1841	57,337	1847	100,110
1842	74,949	1848	191,909
1843	46,302	1849	221,799
1844	61.002	1850	226,287
1845	82,960	1851	299,081
1846	115,230	1852	310,335

Number of passengers from California for:

1851	18,207	1852	12,158

Comparative statement of arrivals for:

	1851.		1852.
Steamers	166	Steamers	206
Ships	941	Ships	956
Barks	883	Barks	860
Brigs	1,303	Brigs	1,253
Galliots	4	Galliots	2
Ketches	2	Ketches	0
Schooners	588	Schooners	544
Sloops	1	Sloops	0
Yachts	0	Yachts	1
	3,888		3,822

Decrease in 1852—66.

Statement of the value of Exports from New-York during the year 1852.

	Domestic Merch'dise.	Foreign Merchandise. Free.	Dutiable.	Specie.
January	2,419,296	26,693	358,244	2,898,058
February	3,352,943	93,932	322,272	3,551,543
March	4,313,245	100,557	357,230	611,994
April	4,244,044	67,719	353,262	200,266
May	4,249,924	106,818	545,973	1,834,893
June	3,566,369	125.500	482,594	3,556,355
July	2,965,542	20,759	325,732	2,971,499
August	2,340,820	46,464	220,978	2,935,833
Sept.	3,289,429	128,184	317,888	2,122,495
October	3,497,874	82,886	484,801	2,452,301
Nov.	3,529,447	27,634	541,296	809,813
Dec.	2,947,848	54,805	518,352	1,180,305
Total	40,716,781	881,951	4,828,622	25,096,255

Monthly Summary of Importations for 1852.

1852.	Free Goods.	Specie, &c.	Dutiable Goods	Duties and Deposits.
Jan.	$1,041,466	104,736	8,584,311	2,126,586
Feb.	1,110,949	110,293	7,024,952	1,747,468
Mar.	1,843,933	525,421	9,302,034	2,237,931
April	1,496,449	327,400	8,410,448	2,077,291
May	789,046	380,584	6,096,996	1,464,107
June	1,062,947	429,747	7,626,181	1,915,577
July	915,154	150,067	11,453,117	2,876,319
Aug.	1,075,388	56,907	13,711,421	3,434,325
Sept.	834,343	66,789	11,095,827	2,691,064
Oct.	215,143	62,690	7,775,614	1,921,878
Nov.	891,382	80,766	7,167,851	1,692,034
Dec.	829,147	112,815	8,421,669	2,357,649
	$12,105,352	2,408,615	106,670,411	26,542,229

Of which the following are some of the principal articles:—

Dry Goods	$62,618,421
Segars	1,917,118
Coffee	5,249,640
Hardware and cutlery	2,711,236
Hides	3,005,862
Lead	1,948,960

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Liquors	1,923,929
Molasses	955,880
Rail-road iron	3,580,838
Steel	1,083,554
Sugar	8,926,690
Tea	6,398,104
Tobacco	703,387
Tin	3,045,320
Watches	2,183,047
Wines	1,645,356

Summary of Imports.

Months.	Mdse. Warehoused during 1852.		Mdse. withdrawn from Warehouse in 1852.	
	Dutiable.	Duties.	Dutiable.	Duties.
Jan	$1,281,594	355,690	1,584,652	472,591
Feb	1,003,383	230,793	1,788,977	639,229
March	916,519	241,399	1,605,849	491,949
April	732,422	203,413	1,255,429	419,548
May	553,109	124,659	1,380,371	477,824
June	640,722	170,106	911,479	314,855
July	423,919	110,901	1,095,800	363,452
August	466,962	128,293	1,329,991	448,797
Sept.	623,263	164,312	1,254,358	462,774
Oct	594,426	169,531	1,256,570	466,727
Nov.	596,068	167,445	1,047,972	358,109
Dec.	935,257	242,223	903,841	329,245
Total	$8,667,641	3,308,965	15,415,289	5,145,099

Specie and Gold Dust entered at New-York by California steamers for 1852, exclusive of passengers.

January	$3,891,001
February	1,070,423
March	4,064,694
April	701,675
May	3,044,462
June	4,634,506
July	1,755,209
August	4,803,838
September	1,387,333
October	5,151,330
November	4,601,346
December	2,258,352
Total	$37,363,569

The average length of each of 23 voyages from New-York to Liverpool, of the COLLINS ships, was 10 days, 19 hours, and 14 minutes.

The average length of each of 24 voyages from Liverpool to New-York of the COLLINS ships, was 11 days, 16 hours, and 24 minutes.

The average length of each of 24 voyages from New-York to Liverpool, of the CUNARD ships, was 11 days, 8 hours, and 55 minutes.

The average length of each of 25 voyages from Liverpool to New-York, of the CUNARD ships, was 12 days, 11 hours and 36 minutes.

The shortest passage was made by the *Arctic*, in February, when she went out to Liverpool in 9 days, 17 hours, and 10 minutes.

The longest passage was made by the *Niagara* in the same month, when she put into Halifax on her way to New-York, making the voyage in 20 days, 16 hours, and 20 minutes.

The shortest passage by a CUNARD ship was the *Asia's*, in August, when she reached New-York in 10 days, 4 hours, and 52 minutes.

The longest passage by a COLLINS ship was the *Pacific's*, in February, when she was 15 days, 6 hours, and 25 minutes in reaching New-York.

New-York State Canals—Tolls, Trade, and Tonnage.

Years.	Tolls, amount collected.	Total movement east and west. Tons.	Total rec'd at tide-water. Tons.
1836	$1,614,342	1,310,807	696,347
1837	1,292,629	1,171,296	611,741
1838	1,590,911	1,333,011	640,481
1839	1,616,382	1,435,713	602,128
1840	1,775,747	1,417,046	669,012
1841	2,034,882	1,521,661	774,334
1842	1,749,197	1,236,921	666,626
1843	2,081,590	1,513,439	836,861
1844	2,445,761	1,816,586	1,019,994
1845	2,645,931	1,977,565	1,204,043
1846	2,755,593	2,268,662	1,362,319
1847	3,634,942	2,869,810	1,744,283
1848	3,252,184	2,796,230	1,447,905
1849	3,268,226	2,894,732	1,579,946
1850	3,273,899	3,076,617	2,033,668
1851	3,329,787	3,582,733	1,977,151

Value of the Total Movement.

Years.	Value.	Years.	Value.
1836	$67,634,643	1844	90,921,152
1837	55,809,228	1845	100,553,245
1838	65,746 559	1846	115,612,109
1839	73,399,764	1847	151,563,428
1840	66,303,893	1848	140,086.157
1841	92,202,929	1849	144,732,285
1842	60,016,608	1850	156,397,929
1843	76,276,909	1851	159,981,801

Value of Imports at the Ports of Boston, New-York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore.

Years.	Boston.	New-York.	Philadelphia.	Baltimore.
1836	$24,248,727	$117,700,917	$15,068,233	$7,131,503
1837	17,949,146	78,543.706	11,680,011	7,857.033
1838	12,355,131	68,159,360	9,323,840	5,701,869
1839	17,987,754	99.483,414	15,037,420	6,995,285
1840	14,826,967	60,064,942	8,464,882	4,835,617
1841	18,912,078	75,358,283	10,342,206	6,101,313
1842	15,796,600	57,446,081	7,381,770	4,416,138
1843	15,788,484	31,112,227	2.755.958	2,479,132
1844	18,884,448	64,528.188	7,217,238	3,917,730
1845	21,230,381	69,897,405	8,156,446	3,741,286
1846	22,615,117	73,531,611	7,989,393	4,042,915

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Years.	Boston.	New-York.	Philadelphia.	Baltimore.
1847	$23,279,148	$83,075,296	$9,586,126	$4,432,314
1848	27,183,777	92,947,176	12,147,000	5,343,643
1849	23,275,953	91,374,584	10,644,803	4,976,731
1850	28,656,163	116,667,558	12,065,834	6,124.201
1851	30,508,139	144,454,016	14,168,618	6,648,774

Value of Exports from the Ports of Boston, New-York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore.

Years.	Boston.	New-York.	Philadelphia.	Baltimore.
1836	$8,716,330	$27,668,159	$3,677,607	$3.393.444
1837	8,016,859	25,459,627	3,841,599	3,789,917
1838	7,400,999	21,654.765	3,477,151	4,524,575
1839	7,694,664	31,946,474	5,299,415	4,576,561
1840	8,232,386	32,408,689	6,820,145	5,768,768
1841	9,441,186	30,792,780	5,152,501	4,945,346
1842	7,830,794	25,467,316	3,753,894	4.901,238
1843	5,146,062	15,972,084	2,354,948	3,008,894
1844	7,501,469	29,722,803	3,535,256	5,126,476
1845	8,923,838	33,554,776	3,574,363	5,216,989
1846	8,958,043	33,646,006	4,751,005	6,869,055
1847	9,686,851	46,586,635	8.541,167	9,750,457
1848	12,204,462	49,742,238	5,732,233	7,129,461
1849	8,692,008	42,788,237	5,343,421	7,999,857
1850	9,141,652	47,580.357	4,501,606	6,944,615
1851	10,498,180	79,857,315	5,356,036	5,635,786

Exports of some of the leading articles, from the port of New-York, during the years 1849, 1850, 1851, *and* 1852.

POT ASHES.—1849, 25,242; 1850, 30,806; 1851, 22,465; 1852, 17,659, bbls.

PEARL ASHES.—1849, 3,236; 1850, 4,451; 1851, 2,436; 1852, 1,383, bbls.

COTTON.—1849, 275,642; 1850, 321,-027; 1851, 277,857; 1852, 347,361, bales.

COTTON GOODS.—1849, 24,104; 1850, 32,215; 1851, 38,933; 1852, 54,590, packages.

FLOUR.—1849, 707,073; 1850, 1,029,-480; 1851, 1,116,162; 1852, 1,278,895, bbls.

WHEAT.—1849, 363,812; 1850, 713,-716; 1851, 1,424,665; 1852, 3,230,395, bushels.

CORN.—1849, 4,670.980; 1850. 2,552,-789; 1851, 1,567,576; 1852, 763,212 bushels.

BEEF.—1849, 35,822; 1850, 55,611; 1851, 49,919; 1852, 52,016, bbls.

PORK.—1849, 79,739; 1850 69,640; 1851, 47,624; 1852, 39,339, bbls.

LARD.—1849, 176,224; 1850, 128,658; 1851, 118,159; 1852, 97,941, kegs.

OMNIBUS LINES.

Recapitulation.

Kipp & Brown's Chelsea Line—Ninth Avenue and Hudson-street to South ferry, forty stages.

Kipp & Brown's Rail-road Depot Line—Hudson River Rail-road depot to Battery-place, ten stages.

J. W. Forshay's Broadway Line—Twenty-first-street and Broadway to South ferry, forty stages.

Pullis & Roberts' Broadway and Fourth Avenue Line—Fourth Avenue, Thirty-second-street and Broadway to South ferry, thirty-five stages.

Ryerson & McElvany's Bull's Head Line—Thirty-second-street, Third Avenue, Thirty-fourth-street and Broadway to South ferry, thirty-two stages.

Murphy & Smith's Tompkins Line—Avenue B, Fourteenth-street and Broadway to South ferry, thirty-five stages.

Young & Ward's Empire Line—Thirty-fourth-street, Sixth Avenue, Ninth-street and Broadway to South ferry, twenty stages.

Young & Ward's Waverley Line—Thirty-fourth-street, Sixth Avenue, Eighth-street and Broadway to South ferry, twenty stages.

Mackrell and Simpson's East Broadway Line—Avenue C, Tenth-street, East Broadway and Broadway to South ferry, twenty-eight stages.

Do. do. do. one stage.

Marshall & Townsend's Fulton Line—Twenty-first-street, Seventh Avenue and Broadway to Fulton ferry, twenty-eight stages.

Bolster & Andrew's Croton Line—Forty-second-street, Fifth Avenue and

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Broadway to Fulton ferry, twenty-one stages.

William Tyson & Co.'s Telegraph Line—Williamsburg ferry, Grand, Bowery and Broadway to foot of Cortlandt-street, twenty-nine stages.

Murphy & Flynn's Yorkville Line—Harlem bridge to Tryon Row, twenty-four stages.

Finch, Sanderson & Co.'s Knickerbocker Line—Harlem Line—Thirty-second-street, Eighth Avenue and Broadway to South ferry, thirty-six stages.

Finch, Sanderson & Co.'s Phœnix Line—Forty-second-street, Eighth Avenue and Broadway to Burling slip, twenty stages.

Jimmerson & Beers' Dry Dock Line—Avenue C, Tenth-street, Bowery and Broadway to South ferry, twenty-eight stages.

Do. do. do. one stage.

Ludlow & Siney's Manhattan-Line—Avenue C, Eleventh-street, Bowery and Broadway to South ferry, twenty-five stages.

Dewey, Dingledien & Co.'s Pearl-street Line—Sixty-first-street, Third Avenue and Pearl-street to Burling slip, twenty-eight stages.

Garrison, Merriam & Brown's First Avenue Line——Thirty-second-street, East river, Bowery and Broadway to South ferry, twenty-three stages.

O'Keefe, Murphy & Smith's Eighth Avenue Line——Forty-eighth-street, Eighth Avenue and Broadway to Fulton ferry, twenty-three stages.

Lent & Mulford's Cortlandt-street Line—Houston-street ferry, through Broadway to Jersey City ferry, twenty stages.

Kipp & Brown's Chelsea Line—Fifty-first-street and Broadway to foot of the Park, ten stages.

John M. Clark's Wall-street Line—Thirty-first-street, Tenth Avenue and Broadway to South and Wall-streets, ten stages.

Lugar & Edwards' Catharine Ferry Line——Thirty-first-street and Tenth Avenue to Catharine ferry, ten stages.

Do. Dec. 10—ten stages additional.

Siney, Barkley & M'Lelland's Hudson River Rail-road Line—Hudson River Railroad depot to South ferry, thirty stages.

Lutz, Doll & Co.'s Shakspeare Line—Manhattanville to Tryon Row, 12 stages.

Do. December 2—six stages additional.

Statement of the value of Real Estate in the City and County of New-York.

Date.	Value of Real Estate.	Date.	Value of Real Estate.
1826	64,804,050	1840	187,221,714
1827	72,617,770	1841	186,350,948
1828	77,139,880	1842	176,513,092
1829	76,130,430	1843	164,955,314
1830	87,603,580	1844	171,937,591
1831	95,594,335	1845	177,207,970
1832	104,160,604	1846	183,480,534
1833	114,124,566	1847	167,315,386
1834	123,249,280	1848	193,029,076
1835	143,732,425	1849	187,741,919
1836	233,742,303	1850	207,142,576
1837	196,450,109	1851	227,015,586
1838	194,543,359	1852	253,278,284
1839	196,940,134		

EMIGRATION.—The following tables, which we have compiled from the books of the commissioners of emigration, will exhibit the emigration for the last year; also the totals for the three previous years. Subjoined is the first table, showing the number of passengers to New-York, both foreign-born and native, for every month in the year:

Months.	Citizens.	Aliens.
January	1,703	15,192
February	2,562	5,342
March	3,134	21,726
April	3,545	28,193
May	3,917	33,372
June	5,541	49,225
July	4,550	29,403
August	3,359	34,513
September	3,232	36,775
October	2,757	17,767
November	2,528	16,573
December	2,224	15,019
Total	39,052	299,504

Here we have the curious fact of 39,052 American citizens returning from foreign parts to their own beloved and glorious land, during the last twelve months, while nearly 300,000 persons of foreign birth have arrived at the samn port. The greater number of the emigrants do not remain here, but pass oe to various states of the Union.

It will be seen that the largest number have arrived in June, the smallest in February. The emigration in June has been swelled by the enormous number of Germans arriving in that month.

The following table will exhibit the different countries from which the emigrants leave, and the numbers arriving respectively from each:

Ireland	117,537
Germany	118,126
England	31,275
Scotland	7,640
Wales	2,531
France	8,778
Spain	450
Switzerland	6,455
Holland	1,223

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Norway	1,889
Sweden	2,066
Denmark	156
Italy	358
Portugal	20
Belgium	82
West Indies	265
Nova Scotia	73
Sardinia	69
South America	120
Canada	48
China	14
Sicily	42
Mexico	22
Russia	33
East Indies	18
Turkey	4
Greece	6
Poland	186
Total aliens	299,404
" American citizens arrived	39,052
" Passengers	338,556

From the foregoing it will be seen that the countries which have contributed most to the emigration during the last year rank in the following order: Germany, Ireland, England, France and Switzerland. The two countries which have sent us seven-eighths of the whole number of emigrants, compared as follows for the different months of the year:

Months.	Ireland.	Germany.
January	6,661	3,426
February	2,830	1,978
March	13,213	3,816
April	10,917	11,699
May	12,875	13,939
June	15,876	22,379
July	9,193	12,573
August	11,615	15,652
September	12,430	15,438
October	7,206	6,921
November	3,033	4,926
December	6,687	6,024
Total	117,537	118,126

From the foregoing, it will be seen that the emigration from the two countries varies very much in the different months, being far greater in the same month from one than the other. It will also be seen that, for the first time in the history of emigration to this country, Germany has sent us more of its inhabitants than Ireland. The difference is as follows:

Germany	118,126
Ireland	117,537
Excess of Germans over Irish	589

In the year 1851, the excess of the Irish over the Germans was 93,373; when the total number of emigrants from Ireland was 163,256, or considerably more than from all other countries put together, and the number from Germany being only 69,883. The German emigrants have this year exceeded their number for last year by 48,243. The Irish emigrants have fallen off by 45,719. The greatest number of emigrants that ever arrived in this city from any country in the old world, was from Ireland, in 1851. The decline in the present year is owing partly to the success of the potato crop, and partly to the operation of the Incumbered Estates Bill, and the hope of a Tenant Right Bill through the action of the League.

The increase of the German emigrants arises from two causes; one is the political disturbances that shook the social fabric, and the other is from the fact of the communes in some parts of Germany sending out the pauper emigrants in cargoes, paying their passage to New-York, and hence to the interior. Never did half so many of the very poorest class of Germans arrive as during the last year.

The following table exhibits a comparative view of the emigration from all the countries for the last four years:

Nation.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.
Ireland	112,591	116,882	163,256	117,537
Germany	55,705	46,402	69,883	118,126
England	28,321	28,125	28,553	31,275
Scotland	8,840	6,771	7,302	7,640
Wales	1,782	1,520	2,189	2,531
France	2,683	3,398	6,064	8,778
Spain	214	257	278	456
Switzerland	1,405	2,361	4,499	6,455
Holland	2,447	1,174	1,798	1,223
Norway	3,300	3,150	2,112	1,889
Sweden	1,007	1,110	872	2,066
Denmark	156	90	229	156
Italy	602	475	618	358
Portugal	287	55	26	20
Belgium	118	230	575	82
West Indies	449	554	575	265
Nova Scotia	151	161	81	73
Sardinia	172	165	98	69
South America	33	103	121	120
Canada	59	61	50	48
China	9	11	9	14
Sicily	21	28	11	42
Mexico	23	41	42	22
Russia	38	18	23	33
East Indies	34	32	10	18
Turkey	6	5	4	4
Greece	6	3	1	6
Poland	138	183	142	186
Arabia	8	—	—	—
Total	220,602	212,796	289,601	299,504

From the foregoing it may be seen that the emigration from Ireland is steadily increasing, with the exception of the present year, as compared with the past. That of Germany has tremendously increased, while from England it is almost stationary, with the exception of a slight increase in the present year. It will be seen that from France and Switzerland the emigration has increased twenty-five per cent. over

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the last year, and three or four hundred per cent. since. 1849. The total amount of emigration from all countries to this port, has steadily progressed during the last four years, till in the year 1852 it is nearly 300,000: and we have no doubt that half a million of human beings, from foreign countries, have arrived in all parts of the United States during the last twelve months. The great majority of these have already become good republicans, and will soon be thoroughly Americanized by our free institutions.

Table showing the range of the thermometer in New-York city upon the 15th day of each month in the year 1852:

Date.	Day.	7 A. M. Deg.	12 Noon. Deg.	6 P. M. Deg.	12 Night. Deg.
Jan.	15....Thursday....	27....	33....	34....	29
Feb.	15....Sunday.....	17....	25....	29....	32
Mar.	15....Monday.....	41....	43....	56....	43
April	15....Thursday....	41 ...	42....	44....	43
May	15....Saturday....	49 ...	52....	50....	49
June	15....Tuesday.....	75....	82....	81....	78
July	15....Thursday....	71....	77....	78...	69
Aug	15 ...Sunday.....	71....	79....	78....	71
Sept.	15....Wednesday..	63....	68 ...	61....	57
Oct.	15....Friday.....	45....	53	46....	44
Nov.	15....Monday.	37....	42....	40....	36
Dec.	15....Wednesday..	29....	33....	33....	31

MORTALITY IN 1852.—The total number of deaths in the City and County of New-York during the year 1852 was 21,183. Males, 11,600; females, 9,503. The mortality in each month was as follows:

January	1,914
February	1,718
March	1,897
April	1,586
May	1,550
June	1,558
July	2,593
August	2,425
September	2,081
October	1,586
November	1,427
December	1,248

The number of still-born children was 1,378. The ages of the deceased ranged as follows:

1 year and under	5,198
1 to 2 years	2,848
2 to 5 do.	2,438
5 to 10 do.	921
10 to 20 do.	786
20 to 30 do	2,134
30 to 40 do.	1,963
40 to 50 do.	1,324
50 to 60 do.	863
60 to 70 do.	610
70 to 80 do.	281
80 to 90 do.	178
90 to 100 do.	35
100 and upwards	3
Unknown	122

The mortality was divided as follows:

Men	4,528
Women	3,972
Boys	7,172
Girls	5,531

The principal diseases were as follows:

Consumption, 2,423; convulsions, 1,649; apoplexy, 637; bronchitis, 225; cholera, 374; cholera infantum, 965; cholera morbus, 238; croup, 599; congestion of lungs, 248; debility, 463; delirium tremens, 118; diarrhœa, 563; dropsy, 376; dropsy of head, 367; drowned, 168; dysentery, 770; erysipelas, 149; fever, 167; scarlet fever, 591; typhus fever, 647; puerperal fever, 149; disease of heart, 270; whooping cough, 187; *hydrophobia*, 1; *hanged*, 1; inflammation of brain, 431; inflammation of bowels, 424; inflammation of lungs, 1,030; marasmus, 978; measles, 242; old age, 155; palsy, 132; premature birth, 222; small-pox, 481; *murdered*, 18; *suicide*, 35; St. Vitus' dance, 1.

The following table will show the nativity of the deceased:

United States	14,682
Ireland	4,053
England	522
Scotland	187
Wales	30
Germany	1,233
France	85
Holland	13
Denmark	3
Sweden	15
Austria	3
Switzerland	27
Spain	5
Italy	14
Prussia	25
British America	68
West Indies	23
South America	5
Africa	1
Portugal	3
Poland	10
Belgium	7
Norway	4
Unknown	155
Russia	5
Total	21,183

Whole number of Trials.

	1852.	1851.
In the Court of Oyer and Terminer	14	14
In the Court of General Sessions	447	417
In the Court of Special Sessions	2,405	2,079
Total	2,866	2,510

Whole number convictions, acquittals and discharges.

	1852.	1851.
In the Court of Oyer and Terminer	14	16
In the Court of General Sessions	501	458
In the Court of Special Sessions	2,717	2,345
Prisoners discharged in all the Courts	1,427	1,387
Total	4,206	4,659
Number of indictments found by the Grand Jury	945	853
Number of complaints dismissed by the Grand Jury	221	281
Recognizances to answer filed during the year	1,819	1,689
Recognizances forfeited	28	45
Sentenced to be executed	5	8
Sentenced to State Prison for life, men,	1	1

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	'52.	'51.
Sentenced to State Prison—		
Men	206	182
Women	21	17
Aggregate term of sentences, years,	813	736½
Sentenced to the Penitentiary—		
Men	893	731
Women	131	153
Sentenced to the City Prison—		
Men	231	318
Women	59	68
Sentenced to the House of Refuge—		
Boys	100	92
Girls	4	10
Amount of fines and fees collected and received, and paid into the city treasury, during the year 1852	$1,878	55
During the year 1851	1,187	18

In the thirteen cases of recognizances forfeited in 1852, the prisoners were brought into court and convicted, or acquitted and discharged.

The late census returns of Mr. Kennedy furnish the nativities of the State of New-York, for the year 1850, as follows:

New-York State Population

Place of Nativity.	New-York City.	State.	Total.
New-York	234,843..	1,916,353..	2,151,196
Maine	1,432..	3,077..	4,509
New-Hampshire	826..	13,693..	14,519
Vermont	953..	51,646..	52,599
Massachusetts	5,587..	50,186..	55,773
Rhode Island	961..	12,168..	13,129
Connecticut	7,784..	58,317..	66,101
New-Jersey	13,255..	22,064..	35,319
Pennsylvania	5,283..	21,070..	26,353
Delaware	303..	596..	899
Maryland	1,852..	— ..	3,953
District of Columbia	261..	267..	538
Virginia	1,702..	1,645..	3,347
North Carolina	284..	389..	673
South Carolina	535..	400..	935
Georgia	277..	237..	510
Louisiana	303..	260..	593
Ohio	499..	3,244..	3,743
Michigan	86..	1,835..	1,921
Illinois	72..	533.	605
Other States	564..	1,548..	2,112
Total United States.	277,752	2,151.544	2,439,296
England	22,824..	61,996..	84,820
Ireland	133,730..	209,581..	343,311
Scotland	7,660..	15,758..	23,418
Wales	847..	6,685..	7,532
Germany	55,476..	62,922..	118,398
France	4,990..	7,525..	12,515
Holland	611..	2,308..	2,919
Italy	708..	125..	833
Switzerland	764..	1,086..	1,850
Russia	472..	145..	617
Sweden	499..	254..	752
Prussia	665..	1,546..	2,211
British America	3,172..	44,028..	47,200
West Indies	687..	380..	1,067
Other countries	4,690..	6,080..	10,770
Total foreign	237,795..	420,267..	658,062
Total population	515,547..	2,581,806..	3,097,353

Of those under the head of "other countries," 461 were born in Spain, 194 in Portugal, 401 in Belgium, 12 in Turkey, 168 in Austria, 392 in Norway, 429 in Denmark, 34 in China, 66 in Asia, 80 in Africa, 83 in Mexico, 29 in Central America, 179 in South America, 40 in the Sandwich Islands, and 222 at sea. Of those under the head of "other states," 135 were born in Florida, 184 in Alabama, 164 in Mississippi, 44 in Texas, 20 in Arkansas, 116 in Tennessee, 369 in Kentucky, 415 in Indiana, 173 in Missouri. 70 in Iowa, 360 in Wisconsin, 7 in California, and 53 in the territories.

EXPENDITURES OF THE CITY GOVERNMENT, &c.

On what account.	1845.	1846.	1847.
Alms-House	$269,678 46	$290,313 74	$356,466 60
Aqueduct repairs	—	4,675 79	4,212 87
Board of Health	2,948 00	1,623 92	1,385 66
Coroner's fees	1,866 49	6,480 93	5,224 30
Cleaning docks and slips	365 10	8,486 75	2,969 50
County contingencies	40,308 14	54,124 21	70,924 93
Contingent expenses of Common Council	8,998 96	8,870 18	16,591 88
Cleaning streets	151,762 58	158,439 79	180,059 58
Donations	10,075 00	8,100 00	8,400 00
Elections	9,414 50	10.884 70	8,661 85
Errors and delinquencies	4,429 41	3,014 94	1,535 13
Fire Department	29,029 24	27,164 81	42,016 95
Interest on revenue bonds	—	64,150 49	78,658 49
Intestate estates	17,125 54	2,195 25	1,342 89
Lamps and gas	159,293 93	162,830 81	162,815 19
Lands purchased for ass'ts.	—	8,735 38	1,121 30
Lands and places	3,400 00	3,500 00	4,575 00
Mayoralty fees	100 00	100 00	100 00
Police	222,067 98	445,143 99	469,752 68
Printing and stationery	28,345 68	26,615 72	22,996 91
Repairs and supplies	51,545 40	42,791 58	44,210 23
Rents	1,200 00	1,200 00	975 00
Real estate expenses	4,655 11	5,770 86	6,261 05
Roads and Avenues	18,069 22	15,000 00	17,549 93
Street expenses	34,403 85	46,000 00	60,318 50
Sewers, cleaning, &c	2,589 47	4,904 17	4,753 01
Salaries	201,540 40	191,503 40	202,977 46
Officers' fees	48,013 77	29,000 56	27,714 86
Watch	151,194 00	—	—
Polly Bodine case	2,200 37	—	—
Park fountain ornaments	—	—	3,617 50
Docks and slips	43,725 23	47,983 80	88950 02
Total funded accounts	$1,518,345 92	$1,689,923 77	$1,898,168 97
Increase over preceding year		11¼ per cent.	13½ per cent.

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EXPENDITURES OF THE CITY GOVERNMENT—(*continued.*)

On what account.	1848.	1849.	1850.
Alms-House	$399,787 56	$404,663 55	$400,000 00
Aqueduct repairs	3,194 41	12,360 00	39,890 00
Board of Health	1,459 94	60,298 88	2,513 61
City Inspector's Department	—	—	10,000 00
Coroner's fees	5,480 30	8,794 82	12,403 42
Cleaning docks and slips	4,635 00	6,695 00	14,043 27
County contingencies	89,334 24	94,133 99	109,936 92
Contingent expenses of Common Council	20,773 01	18,567 19	18,466 84
Cleaning streets	145,844 95	166,500 00	158,637 63
Donations	9,200 00	13,992 68	9,863 11
Elections	6,286 88	11,276 32	7,269 83
Errors and delinquencies	1,272 92	1,882 45	1,616 27
Fire Department	34,192 07	63,615 61	44,969 28
Interest on revenue bonds	75,503 96	108,628 25	143,719 86
Intestate estates	1,955 52	307 94	873 10
Lamps and gas	170,909 41	214,500 00	184,808 41
Lands purchased for ass'ts	14,608 95	—	11,302 86
Lands and places	9,962 30	6,512 01	8 300 00
Markets	—	2,200 00	4,000 00
Mayoralty fees	125 00	125 00	125 00
Police	480,208 02	504,085 65	487,541 57
Printing and stationery	29,983 49	40,775 42	35,207 25
Repairs and supplies	43,482 87	78,680 00	66,889 91
Rents	2,147 67	1,850 00	1,750 00
Real estate and expenses	6,096 48	35,403 19	96,782 96
Roads and avenues	19,872 05	27,124 71	50,000 00
Stationery	—	—	16,408 31
Street expenses	89,950 00	85,420 07	122,000 00
Sewers, cleaning, &c	4,673 05	10,091 00	10,000 00
Salaries	209 726 31	226,467 42	195,103 99
Officers' fees	24,986 61	29,510 20	28,291 19
Park fountain	3,798 30	—	—
County officers	65.144 12	63,381 04	62,642 11
Bowling Green Fountain	—	—	2,523 03
Penitentiary Hospital	—	—	12,694 62
Water loan interest	—	—	186,689 00
Docks and slips	131,922 15	101,112 72	149,829 22
Total funded accounts	$2,111,317 54	$2,408,955 11	$2,701,092 62
Per cent. increase each year	11½ per cent.	11¼ per cent.	12½ per cent.

On what account.	1851.	1852.	Increase of '52 over '51.
Alms-House	$390,000 60	$390,000 00	—
Aqueduct repairs	13,729 32	30,000 00	$16,271 68
City Inspector	37,107 98	75,000 00	37,892 02
Coroner's fees	8,350 37	12,000 00	3,649 63
Cleaning docks and slips	9,290 00	18,500 00	9,310 00
County contingencies	119,792 94	139,300 00	19,507 06
Contingent expenses of City Council	21,423 07	32,000 00	10,576 93
Cleaning streets	179,991 75	289,000 00	109,008 25
Donations	9,377 47	15,000 00	5,622 53
Elections	9,289 72	14,500 00	5,210 28
Errors and delinquencies	2,059 56	3,000 00	940 44
Fire Department	81,994 80	110,000 00	28,005 20
Interest on revenue bonds	69,972 54	76,100 00	6,127 46
Intestate estates	1,386 33	2,031 91	645 58
Lamps and gas	185,008 27	269,700 00	83,691 73
Lands and places, &c	13,267 66	32,927 01	19,659 35
Markets	4,200 00	7,000 00	2,800 00
Mayoralty fees	150 00	150 00	—
Police	530,907 87	615,000 00	84,002 13
Printing	44,916 61	70,000 00	25,083 39
Repairs and supplies	59,850 97	75,000 00	15,149 03
Rents	2,341 66	3.261 00	919 34
Real estate	35,425 00	159.100 00	123.675 00
Roads and avenues	49,994 21	68,868 93	18,894 72
Real estate expenses	37,735 53	50,000 00	12,264 47
Stationery	21,995 52	30,000 00	8,004 48
Street expenses	131,070 16	285,000 00	153,929 84
Sewers, repairing, cleaning, &c	8,656 00	12,795 00	4,060 00
Salaries	221,687 77	242,000 00	20,312 23
Officers' fees	35,403 59	25,000 00	—
County offices	73,950 92	85,000 00	11,049 08
Statistical tables	1,500 00	—	—
Docks and slips	239,444 99	295,000 00	55,555 01
Total funded accounts	$2,691,271 58	$3,542,253 85	$891,906 86
Increase over previous year	*	34 per cent.	

NOTE.—As the pay-rolls for this year are not closed, we have put down round numbers. But there is no possibility of the sums being too great; on the contrary, it is more than likely that additions to them will come in next year under the convenient head of "deficiencies."

* Decrease nearly 2 per cent.

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THE RAIL-ROADS OF NEW-YORK.

	Buffalo and Rochester.	Hudson River.	New-York and Erie.	Northern.	Oswego and Syracuse.	Syracuse and Utica.	Utica and Schenectady.	Buffalo and State Line.	For 3 mos. Roch.Lock. and N. Falls.	Rochester and Syracuse.
Capital stock as by charter	$1,825,000 00..	4,000,000 00..	10,500,000 00..	2,000,000 00..	350,000 00..	2,400,000 00..	4,500,000 00..	1,000,000 00..	1,675,000..	5,549,800 00
Amount of stock subscribed	1,825,000 00..	3,753,475 99..	7,766,991 17..	2,000,000 00..	250,000 00..	2,400,000 00..	4,500,000 00..	881,000 00..	1,447,500..	5,549,800 00
Amount paid in as by last report	1,825,000 00..	3,703,229 23..	5,992,289 29..	1,529,863 21..	350,000 00..	2,400,000 00..	4,124,000 00..	605,926 41..	728,273..	3,364,970 75
Total amount now paid in of capital stock	1,825,000 00..	3,740,515 99..	7,766,991 17..	1,578,311 61..	350,000 00..	2,400,000 00..	4,124,000 00..	879,036 62..	1,446,180..	5,132,990 00
Funded debt, as by last report	160,903 00..	5,646,883 92..	14,503,868 90..	1,602,790 00..	200,000 00..	103,000 00..	102,500 00..	—	—	821,000 00
Total amount now of funded debt	184,903 00..	6,046,395 00..	18,003,868 90..	2,780,760 00..	201,500 00..	126,000 00..	—	872,000 00..	711,000..	700,123 10
Floating debt, as per last report	—	159,427 58..	2,957,376 31..	1,081,831 93..	10,413 27..	— ..	— ..	87,177 20..	— ..	—
Total amount now of floating debt	150,000 00..	956,590 42..	1,323,053 55..	649,044 60..	8,040 52..	— ..	— ..	148,389 62..	— ..	60,000 00
Total amount now of funded and floating debt	334,903 00..	7,002,985 42..	19,326,922 45..	3,429,804 60..	209,540 82..	126,000 00..	— ..	1,020,389 62..	711,000..	760,123 10
Average rate per annum of interest on funded debt	6¼ per cent..	7 per cent..	7 per cent..	7 per cent..	7 per cent..	7 per cent..	— ..	7 per cent..	7 per cent..	6 per cent.
COST OF ROAD AND EQUIPMENT.										
Cost, &c., for graduation and masonry	593,326 48..	4,656,636 02..	10,631,624 92..	1,715,204 58..	197,976 86..	448,370 32..	870,815 93..	802,623 18..	cost acct..	1,948,448 90
Do. bridges	61,141 48..	234,868 81..	— ..	137,391 57..	10,198 89..	111,176 43..	100,693 41..	41,359 41.	not closed..	202,864 87
Do. superstructure, including iron	1,201,106 25..	1,851,469 78..	4,790,322 46..	1,113,872 88..	251,755 73..	314,811 03..	1,875,643 13..	627,364 78..	— ..	2,257,760 29
Do. pass'r. & freight stations, buildings & fixtures	52,822 87..	— ..	1,048,199 53..	321,418 69..	4,898 90..	137,448 75..	142,613 61..	13,768 04..	— ..	94,331 03
Do. engine & car houses, shops, machinery & fix.	34,723 59..	575,174 51..	— ..	36,324 76..	5,615 15..	24,575 76..	64,369 31..	2,748 38..	— ..	189,754 56
Do. land, land damages and fences	443,140 54..	849,760 45..	1,077,365 67..	123,669 98..	53,806 88..	184,511 60..	500,026 92..	255,503 33..	— ..	598,083 76
Do. locomotives and fixtures and snow-plows	160,773 30..	319,714 15..	1,349,987 29..	233,393 30..	33,004 49..	168,206 31..	238,027 60..	59,326 52..	— ..	359,492 52
Do. passenger and baggage cars	84,084 59..	168,772 64..	262,878 78..	39,440 18..	12,309 00..	61,113 27..	68,010 43..	18,473 52..	— ..	60,953 82
Do. freight and other cars	73,350 72..	318,039 37..	1,162,745 22..	398,442 97..	19 690 00..	103,861 72..	163,266 44..	53,561 35..	— ..	136,678 19
Do. engineering and agencies	32,544 39..	466,038 98..	475,821 29..	127,256 43..	18,550 87..	107,402 62..	69,806 33..	45,634 77..	— ..	168,410 14
Total	$2,737,014 29..	10,527,645 75..	27,551,205 71..	4,933,029 97..	607,803 77..	661,477 81..	4,093,273 11..	1,921,270 28..	— ..	6,016,778 17
CHARACTERISTICS OF ROAD.										
Length of road	76 miles..	144 miles..	446 miles..	118 miles..	35 miles..	53 miles..	78 miles..	69 miles..	76 miles.	104 miles.
Length of double track, including sidings	1¾ ..	55 ..	80¾ ..	20 ..	1¾ ..	56 ..	88 ..	— ..	3 ..	—
Weight of rail per yard on main track	62 lbs. ..	70 lbs. ..	58 62 65 68 72..	58 to 61 ..	57 ..	61 and 70 ..	65 ..	58 ..	62 ..	65½ lbs.
No. of engine-houses and shops	6 ..	6 ..	19 ..	5 ..	1 ..	6 ..	4 ..	4 ..	2 ..	7
No. of engines	17 ..	44 ..	142 ..	28 ..	5 ..	18 ..	25 ..	9 ..	13 ..	33
No. of passenger cars	32 ..	82 ..	91 ..	18 ..	5 ..	25 ..	— ..	10 ..	20 ..	34
No. of baggage, mail, express and freight cars	145 ..	466 ..	1877	714 ..	32 ..	131 ..	250 ..	48 ..	68 ..	170
BUSINESS.—Miles run by passenger trains	253,892..	555.968..	1,062,424½..	128,849 ..	60,120..	215,945..	326,840..	90,554..	42,408..	414,028
Miles run by freight trains	130,745..	244,289..	1,326,846½..	224,391 ..	18,200..	103,396..	206,360..	15,880..	4.028..	167,024
Rate of fare per mile charged to pas. in respective class	1,50 68c 67c..	1c to 2c ..	2c 1¼ 4-5 ..	1 to 3c ..	3c 2c ..	2c ..	2c 8-10c ..	2 12-69c.	2½ cents.	2c 96 100 2½
No of passengers (all classes) carried in cars	469,125..	1,125,683..	864,330..	79,411..	78,525..	570.051¾..	586,269..	108.095½ .	88,756..	584,073
No. of miles traveled, or No. pass. carried one mile	25,627,086..	47,464,368..	81,179,554..	3,439,258..	1,941,555..	23,505,482..	37.369,956..	3,835,961.	2,852,683..	36,560,513
No. of tons of 2000 pounds, of freight carried in cars	81,364..	65,045..	456,460 9 10..	181,809..	23,117..	147,367..	190,719 tons..	13,351½..	1,267..	207,644
Total movement of freight or No. of tons carried 1 mile	5,981,865..	7,643,678..	96,697,695..	16,594,139..	614,491..	6,493,350..	14,579,442..	577,431..	— ..	12,458,640
Aver. speed by ord. pas. trains, includ. stops, per hour	19 ..	27 ..	21 ..	24 ..	20 ..	21 1-5 ..	25 miles..	20 ..	22 miles..	16
Rate of speed of same when in motion	22 ..	35 ..	23 ..	28 ..	23 ..	30 ..	30 ..	30 ..	27 ..	21
Aver. rate speed adopted by express trains, includ. stops	27½ ..	35 ..	27 ..	28 ..	22 ..	28 and 34..	35 ..	25 ..	24 ..	30
Rate of speed of same when in motion	30 ..	45 ..	33 ..	30 ..	24 ..	38 and 44.	38 ..	35 ..	30 ..	36
Aver. rate speed adopted by freight trains, inclu. stops	13½ ..	16 ..	10 ..	10 ..	12 ..	44 ..	15 ..	12 ..	11 ..	11
Rate of speed of same when in motion	16 ..	25 ..	15 ..	12 ..	15 ..	30 ..	18 ..	18 ..	17 ..	15
THE AMOUNT OF FREIGHT IN TONS,										
Amount of the products of the forest	7,976..	1,017..	74,908 ..	46,310..	14,495..	6,971..	6,799 tons..	1,265..	237 ..	6,760
Do. animals	25,291..	22.247..	75,943 ..	7,412..	464..	41,982..	70,043..	3,773..	158 ..	72,131
Do. vegetable food	17,000..	3.497..	56,929½..	83,863..	4,444..	46.550..	43,021..	1,765..	423 ..	67,393
Do. other agricultural products	3,275..	9,820..	2,419 ..	14,344..	130..	2,567..	5,499..	98..	— ..	3,217
Do. manufactures	4,849..	10,630..	76,847 ..	7,712..	510..	15,288..	14,135..	851..	56 ..	14,327
Do. merchandise	18,185..	14,078..	50.687 ..	17,682..	1,839..	24,789..	33,853..	2,106..	225 ..	26,467
Do. other articles	4,789..	3,755..	118,724 ..	4,483..	1,236..	9,923..	17,299..	2,490..	167 ..	17,325

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32 miles of the Buffalo Road has been sold for $322,000, *which, deducted from cost of road and equipment, leaves that sum* $2,415,014 29. *Add to the Hudson Road* $1,087,171,04 *interest. Northern Road add* $70,000 *for docks,* $108,868 *expenses;* $507,185 *losses.*

	Buffalo and Rochester.	Hudson River.	New-York and Erie.	Northern.	Oswego and Syracuse.	Rochester and Syracuse.	Syracuse and Utica.	Utica and Schenectady.	Buffalo and State Line.	For 3 mos. Roch. Lock & N. Falls.
EXPENSES OF MAINTAINING ROAD.										
Repairs of road-bed and railway, except cost of iron	$29,087 45	$59,512 98	$188,351 29	$39,458 80	$9,645 54	$83,878 80	$38,526 48	$43,120 05	$16,942 54	$10,695 24
Depreciation of way	—	—	—	—	—	—	2,178 21	—	—	—
Cost of iron used in repairs	—	—	55,080 00	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Repairs of buildings	2,046 15	780 22	5,412 52	6,122 16	248 92	7,496 07	3,001 07	3,777 30	22 79	1 00
Repairs of fences and gates	1,295 30	23 35	3,948 44	831 78	293 47	7,749 91	2 895 38	458 74	62 12	28 66
Taxes on real estate	12,080 34	10,846 90	43,233 01	6,738 51	1,675 56	14,963 79	11,994 45	18,605 80	719 14	—
Total	$44,509 26	71,163 45	296,267 26	53,151 25	11,863 52	114,088 57	58,595 59	65,961 89	17,757 59	10,725 00
EXPENSES OF REPAIRS OF MACHINERY.										
Repairs of engines and tenders	18,240 42	62,635 19	203,312 48	22,937 84	3,365 18	48,559 79	27,135 85	23,300 32	2,153 91	2,054 03
Repairs of passenger and baggage cars	4,489 83	34,907 49	63,355 07	5,184 39	1,105 95	17,247 08	14,356 91	20,288 54	586 81	302 25
Repairs of freight cars	7,221 50	4,594 95	68,804 71	12,705 83	1,325 20	22,743 02	7,933 62	12,763 64	888 52	81 60
Depreciation do.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	89 12
Repairs of tools and machinery in shops	1,392 31	2,289 46	24,389 24	2,395 84	116 87	4,457 38	1,306 72	2,794 38	11 95	—
Incidental expenses, including oil, fuel, clerk, watch., &c.	1,545 21	9,912 48	18,684 24	10,318 98	—	6,314 31	5,230 19	8,364 45	252 50	2,527 00
Total	$32,889 27	114,029 57	378,546 74	53,541 88	5,913 20	99,311 98	55,963 39	67,511 33	3,898 59	—
EXPENSES OF OPERATING THE ROAD.										
Office expenses, stationery, &c	2,512 84	8,822 49	28,812 91	2,788 32	585 69	5,499 56	1,642 23	1,285 87	317 22	666 80
Agents and clerks	10,011 66	27,490 20	79,868 51	28,781 62	1,792 50	21,285 66	14,537 05	15,232 80	4,244 64	3,235 93
Labor, loading and unloading freight	8,053 09	20,821 23	90,367 37	20,299 38	—	5,121 33	2,636 24	5,770 56	3,264 26	128 00
Porter, watchmen and switch tenders	7,166 96	78,438 03	21,420 16	9,284 40	—	6,001 67	2,660 08	2,254 80	2 408 07	2,259 63
Wood and water-station attendance	5,554 96	7,888 86	6,019 49	3,242 55	3,158 10	10,042 66	5,870 11	4,513 79	1,558 13	765 79
Conductors, baggage and brakemen	12,753 36	32,881 74	178,410 03	20,425 31	1,630 00	24,004 64	10,550 03	13,349 52	3,552 39	1,958 25
Enginemen and firemen	21,186 06	24,421 68	131,222 17	12,448 00	3,254 72	31,687 66	15,009 34	18,672 99	4,002 46	1,887 04
Fuel, cost and labor preparing	38,130 41	169,858 28	262,363 68	18,620 00	12,218 36	80,786 81	45,768 71	75,569 13	15,902 80	4,486 93
Oil and waste for engines and tenders	4,589 19	12,541 10	54,449 06	2,658 09	1,336 60	5,964 55	2,340 39	8,108 78	1,082 55	—
Do. do. freight cars	2,291 59	2,218 29	21,625 68	3,278 88	—	1.432 27	1,718 58	5,119 71	1,390 02	—
Do. do. passenger and baggage cars	2,294 60	4,745 80	1,921 71	304 61	—	3,702 58	1,718 58	—	526 73	2,032 92
Loss and damage of goods and baggage	2,300 27	2.504 85	36,766 16	1,655 93	1,128 09	5,412 73	1,972 90	1,764 45	1,103 01	—
Damages for injuries to persons	1,861 53	7,283 61	18,638 32	—	109 00	16,355 01	1,253 69	—	125 12	443 88
Do. to property including fire and cattle killed	1,633 57	1,730 22	3,857 85	334 51	446 12	3,442 07	2,477 77	1,107 50	1,215 31	164 00
General superintendence	2,499 96	3,979 16	20,120 30	11,449 33	2,048 60	2,550 00	4,845 72	5,625 02	1,233 28	300 00
Contingencies	4,831 46	74,472 92	20,090 34	17,975 85	2,124 84	1,802 25	11,322 75	12,065 81	2,647 76	378 38
Total	$127,254 53	482,068 57	968,953 74	153,029 78	29,832 62	225,142 45	126,334 17	171,530 83	44,663 75	18,701 50
EARNINGS AND CASH RECEIPTS AND PAYMENTS.										
EARNING—From passengers	431,357 29	17,204 08	1,382,636 87	93,548 29	54,903 00	682,820 45	409,308 19	619,903 72	98,097 49	64,185 41
Do. freight	166,098 12	31,240 60	1,883,198 76	322,951 44	21,016 43	273,344 41	192,744 23	361,656 81	31,530 49	2,132 32
Do. other sources	23,521 23	1,000 00	271,930 90	19,346 01	14,697 50	32,193 05	14,865 69	48,214 25	4,678 54	1,930 00
RECEIPTS—From passengers	431,357 29	17,204 08	1,371,529 20	90,397 87	54,903 00	682,829 45	409,308 19	619,903 72	97,166 99	64,185 41
Do. freight	166,098 12	30,200 00	1,995,884 39	294,163 71	21,016 43	273,344 41	181,116 60	361,656 81	31,530 49	2,132 32
Do. other sources	47,409 78	1,000 00	292,401 70	20,621 01	14,697 50	32,193 05	14,379 79	52,692 70	2,440 33	1,930 00
PAYMENTS—For transportation expenses	204,653 06	32,978 85	1,691,623 82	—	47,609 34	438,542 60	240,893 15	305,004 05	33,041 37	—
interest	10,297 07	16,465 33	1,114,939 07	245,319 51	14,233 03	51,147 00	5,415 75	4,512 76	—	—
dividends	182,581 55	—	416,334 00	—	12,250 00	404,185 60	293,800 00	412,400 00	—	—

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Comparative Statement of the Stocks and Prices of Cotton in New-York.

	1851. June 30. Up'ds.	N. Or's.	1852. Dec. 31. Upd's.	N. Or's.
Inferior	7⅛	8	7	7⅜
Ordinary	8	9	7⅛	8
Middling	9⅛	9⅛	8⅛	8¾
Good middling	9¾	10⅛	8¾	9¼
Middling fair	10	10¼	9	9⅜
Fair	10¼	12	9¾	10
Fully fair	nom	nom	nom	10⅜
Good fair	"	"	"	11
Fine	"	"	"	nom
Stock, bales	50,000		36,000	

	1851.		1852.	
Inferior	7¾	8	8	8
Ordinary	8¼	8⅛	8⅞	9⅛
Middling	9⅜	9¾	9⅜	9⅝
Good middling	9¾	10¾	9⅛	10¼
Middling fair	10⅛	11	9¾	11
Fair	10¾	11¾	10	11⅛
Fully fair	11	nom	10¼	12
Good fair	nom	"	nom	nom
Fine	"	"	"	"
Stock, bales	40,000		25,000	

BREADSTUFFS.—Flour and grain, for the greater part of the past year, 1852, ruled low, and it was only with the commencement of the past autumn that prices began to advance, closing, on the 31st December last, at higher figures than at the close of the preceding year. We annex the comparative quotations for flour in 1851 and 1852:

	December 31, 1851.	December 31, 1852.
Sour, per bbl	— a —	$4 87½ a $5 06¼
Superfine, No. 2	— a —	5 00 a 5 18¾
State, common brands	4 37½ a 4 43¾	5 50 a 5 56¼
State, stght brands	4 43¾ a 4 50	5 56¼ a 5 62½
State, favorite brands	4 56¼ a 4 62½	5 62½ a 5 75
Western, mixed brands	4 50 a 4 56¼	5 62½ a 5 68¾
Michigan and Indiana, stght. brands	4 62½ a 4 68¾	5 68¾ a 5 75
Michigan, fancy brands	4 68¾ a 4 75	5 75 a 5 81¼
Ohio, common to good brand	4 56¼ a 4 62½	5 68¾ a 5 81¼
Ohio, rnd. hoop, common	4 56 a 4 62	5 75 a 5 81¼
Ohio, fancy brands	4 75 a 4 93¾	5 75 a 5 93¾
Genesee, fancy brands	4 75 a 4 93	6 00
Ohio, Indiana, and Michigan, ext	5 00 a 5 25	6 00 a 6 37½
Genesee, extra brands	5 00 a 5 75	6 00 a 6 56¼
Canada (in bond)	4 37½ a 4 50	5 87½ a 5 93¾
Brandywine	4 43¾ a 4 50	5 75 a —
Georgetown	4 43 a 4 50	5 75 a —
Petersburg city	4 43 a 4 50	5 75 a —
Richmond country	4 37½ a 4 43	5 62½ a —
Alexandria	4 37 a 4 43	5 56¼ a 5 62½
Baltimore, Howard-street	4 37 a 4 43	5 62½ a —
Rye flour	3 50 a —	4 56¼ a 4 62½
Corn meal, Jersey	3 25 a —	3 81¼ a 3 87½
Corn meal, Brandywine	3 37½ a 3 50	4 00 a —
" per punch	15 00 a 15 56	— a 18 00

The movements in grain have more or less kept pace with those of flour. The crops of wheat last year were larger and of better quality than usual. The supplies from Canada and the Southern states were large, and of good quality, while the great receipts of Western, with Genesee, &c., showed about the average of the previous year in quantity and quality. The crop of Indian corn, which is always large, was a full average one. Oats, rye, and barley, were also in fair supply. We annex tables of comparative prices:

WHEAT.

	Dec. 31, 1851.	Dec. 31, 1852.
White Genesee, per bush	$1 12 a $1 15	$1 30 a $1 35
Do. Canada (in bond)	0 95 a 1 —	1 25 a 1 31½
Southern white	— — a 1 08	1 28 a 1 31
Ohio white	1 — a 1 05	1 29 a 1 32
Michigan white	1 — a 1 05	1 29 a 1 32
Western red	— — a — —	1 20 a — —
Mixed western	— — a — —	1 25 a — —

CORN.

	Dec. '51.	Dec. '52.
Round yellow	— a —	68 a 69
Round white	— a —	— a —
Southern white	— a —	69 a 71
Southern yellow	— a —	70 a 71
Southern mixed	— a —	— a —
Western mixed	67 a 68	77 a 78
Western yellow	— a —	76 a 78

RYE.

Northern, per bush	77 a 78	88 a 90

BARLEY.

Two and four rowed, per bush	80 a 83	70 a 73

OATS.

River and Canal, per bush	47 a 48	50 a 52
West'n & Canada do.	— a —	50 a 51
New-Jersey do.	42 a 44	48 a 50

RICE.—It will be perceived that the prices for this article have continued to be very uniform since 1846 and '47, when there was such a large demand for export. In the summer of '47 fair quality sold at as high as 5 3-4 a 6 cents; the same quality has been sold this year at six cents on account of short supply and large demand for California. Rice was first introduced into this country

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in the year 1647. A half bushel was used as seed, and planted in Virginia, which yielded sixteen bushels, which result encouraged future operations The first shipment was made to England in 1698, which consisted of about 215 casks, and since that period the export demand has continued to increase, until now, when we export almost two-thirds of our crop, which amounts to about 225,000 tierces. Carolina rice commanded the prize medal last year at the great London exhibition, and will continue to be in favor —as it is the best—so long as it can be afforded at a reasonable rate. We proceed to annex tables of comparative prices, with imports, exports, stocks, &c.:

	1847.	1848.	1849.
Broken	2¾ a 3	2¼ a 2⅝	2⅜ a 2⅝
Inferior and com	3⅛ a 3¼	2¾ a 2⅞	2⅜ a 3
Middling and fair	3⅜ a 3⅝	3 a 3⅛	3⅛ a 4
Good and prime	3⅝ a 3¾	3¼ a 3⅝	3¾ a 7-16

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Broken	2½ a 2¾	2¼ a 2⅝	3 a 3¼
Inferior and com	2⅛ a 2¾	2⅞ a 3⅛	3⅛ a 3¾
Middling and fair	2⅞ a 3⅛	3¼ a —	3⅞ a 4⅛
Good and prime	3¼ a 3⅝	3⅜ a 3⅝	4¼ a 4⅜

Stock.	Casks.
December 31, 1852	1,810
" " 1851	2,813
" " 1850	3,310

	Imports. Casks.	Exports. Casks.
1846	37,882	26,823
1847	41,840	29,618
1848	42,434	26,321
1849	52,880	29,385
1850	44,354	26,105
1851	49,312	24,844
1852	48,879	25,318

From the East Indies..... 3,000 bags.

PROVISIONS.—Provisions have, within the past year, materially advanced. The stock of old pork was greatly reduced at the opening of the past season, or at the commencement of last autumn. A scarcity of hogs at the West, with an increased demand for pork in California and Australia, sent up prices. Thus, on the 31st December, 1851, mess pork sold at $14 50 a $14 75, while, on the 31st December, 1852, it brought $19 a $19 50, and in the same month sold at $20, to arrive. Our limits do not permit us to go into details regarding the pork trade at the West, including tables of supplies and consumption.

With the advance in pork other articles of provisions have generally sympathized, and have advanced with it. The movements of each are shown by the following comparative tables of prices:

PORK.

	Prices, Dec. 31, 1851.	Dec. 31, 1852.
Mess, old	$14 75 a 14 87½	$19 — a — —
Mess, new	14 50 a — —	19 50 a — —
Prime, old	13 50 a — —	— — a 16 —
Prime, new	— — a — —	16 50 a — —
Clear	— — a — —	21 — a — —
Prime mess	— — a — —	— — a — —

BEEF.

Mess, country, per bbl.	$8 — a 8 62½	$9 50 a 10 50
Mess, city	9 50 a 10 —	— — a — —
Mess, extra	10 50 a 11 —	14 25 a 14 50
Prime, country	4 — a 4 50	5 50 a 6 12½
Prime, city	4 75 a 5 25	6 25 a 6 37½
Prime mess, per tierce	14 50 a 15 —	19 — a 22 —

PICKLED MEATS.

Hams, per lb	9 a — 10½ a 11
Shoulders, do	7 a — 8 a 8½
Sides, do	— a — 9 a 9½

BEEF HAMS.

In pickle, per barrel	$13 75 $14 75 a 15 50

LARD.

Prime Ohio, per lb	9 a — 12¼ a 12½

BUTTER.

Orange County, per lb	21 a 23 27 a 30
Irish	— a — 24 a 27
State	14 a 18 20 a 24
Ohio	11 a 14 16 a 20

CHEESE.

Fair to prime, per lb	6½ a 7¼ 8 a 9

GROCERIES.—The chief fluctuations in sugar, coffee, and molasses in prices, have, if anything, been in favor of the year 1851, compared with those of 1852. These articles meet with an increasing consumption every year, and their value, like other articles, is regulated by supply and consumption, or demand. The chief foreign supplies of sugar are derived from the West Indies, and principally from the island of Cuba; while the domestic production, both in Louisiana, Florida, and Texas, as well as in the maple forests of the North, has been largely augmented. The present consumption of cane-grown sugar in the United States is estimated to be equal to about 10,000 boxes per month, or 2,500 per week, equal to about 500,000 tons per annum. Our limits do not permit our going more into detail. We annex the comparative prices of sugars for the periods indicated:

SUGARS.

	Dec. '51.	Dec. '52.
St. Croix	6 a 7	— a —
New Orleans	4½ a 6	4½ a 6
Cuba Muscovado	4 a 6	4¼ a 5¾
Porto Rico	4½ a 6½	4¾ a 6¾
Havana, white	6¼ a 7¼	7 a 8
Do., brown and yellow	4¼ a 6	4¾ a 7
Jamaica	5 a —	5 a 5¼
Brazil, white	4 a 7¼	6 a 6½
Do. brown	4 a 6	4⅞ a 5
Stuarts' double refi'd loaf	8 a —	8¾ a —
Do. do. do. crush'd	7¾ a —	8½ a —
Do. (A) crushed	7¼ a —	8⅜ a —

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	Stock, Dec. '51.	Dec. '52.
Number of hogsheads.	7,582	9,000
" boxes	13,512	23,000
" bags	26,105	12.150
" cases	302	—

MOLASSES.—The supply and value of molasses generally corresponds more or less with the supply and prices of sugars. We annex comparative prices:

	Prices, Dec. '51.	Dec. '52.
New-Orleans, per gal.	27 a —	30 a 31
Porto Rico	20 a 28	22 a 29
Cuba Muscovado	18 a 25	20 a 22
Trinidad, Cuba	20 a 25	20 a 22
Cardenas, &c.	18 a 19	20 a 21

	Stock, Jan. '50.	Jan. '51.	Jan. '52.
Hogsheads	3,300	4,000	1,115

COFFEE.—The movements in this article of trade are quite interesting, but our room compels us to be brief. The annual increase in the consumption of coffee in the United States has been very great. In 1821, it amounted to 11,886,063 pounds, or 5,306 tons; and in 1835, a period of fourteen years, we find that it actually reached to the large quantity of 91,752,802 pounds, or to 40,961 tons. Prior to the revolution, St. Domingo produced the largest supply of coffee, which in 1792 reached 35,000 tons; and had not the island been sacrificed to the blacks, it was expected in another year to have reached 42,000 tons. Cuba, also, at one time produced considerable coffee; but it has, since its culture in Brazil, yielded to the cultivation of sugar. The growth of coffee in Brazil has been wonderfully augmented. In 1821, the quantity exported was only 7,200 tons, while in 1839-40 it reached 30,000 tons. The exports from Brazil, within the three or four past years, have been as follows:

	'48-'49.	'49-'50.
Total exports, bags	1,622,188	1,142,000
To the United States	744,080	574,233
Total exports, bags	1,844,000	1,800,000

	'50-'51.	'51-'52.
To the United States	844,507	947,700

The export for 1851-'52 is estimated.

The largest imports are made at New-Orleans, New-York and Baltimore, and in the order we have named them. The imports from Brazil into New-Orleans, for the year ending the 30th June, 1852, amounted to 402,000 bags. Rio coffee forms the great bulk of that consumed by the inhabitants of our Western states. On the Atlantic coast, Java, Laguayra, Maracaibo, with other kinds, enter freely into consumption. We annex comparative lists of prices:

	Dec. '51.	Dec. '52.
Java, white, per lb	11 a 11¾	11 a 12⅝
Mocha	13¼ a 14	12½ a 13⅝
Brazil	8 a 9¼	8¾ a 9⅜
Laguayra	8⅝ a 9¼	9¼ a 9⅜
Maracaibo	8⅝ a 9⅝	8¾ a 9⅝
Costa Rica	8⅝ a 9⅝	9⅝ a 10¾
St. Domingo (cash)	7¾ a 8	8 a 8⅛
Stocks, bags	89,316	53,483

FISH.—The fishery excitement last summer and autumn, had the effect of interfering with the catch of mackerel, which was smaller than usual, and the stock in this market on the 31st December, 1852, was not over one-fourth what it was in 1851. Hence prices have ruled higher than previously, notwithstanding the importations of foreign fish have been much larger than usual. Dry cod, on the contrary, which are taken in our own waters, show a large increase in stock over the same period in 1851. The stocks of each may be stated as follows:

	Dec. '51.	Dec. '52.
Dry Cod, quintals, in store	1,500	9,000
Do. afloat	—	4,000
Total	1,500	13,000
Mackerel:		
In store, No. 1, large, bbls		1,000
Small shore, No. 1, "		750
" No. 2, "		—
" No. 3, "		450
" No. 3, small, bbls		500
Total, Dec. 31, 1852, "		2,700
Total, Dec. 31, 1851, "		12,000
Decrease		9,300
Pickled herring—estimated		5,500

	Dec. '51.	Dec. '52.
Dry cod, per cwt.	$2 75 a 2 87½	$3 65 a 3 80
Dry scale	— — a 2 00	2 75 a 3 00
Pickled cod, per barrel	— — a 3 00	— — a 3 75
Mackerel, No. 1, Massachusetts, new	8 50 a 8 62½	11 50 a 11 75
Do. No. 1, Halifax	— — a — —	— — a 12 75
Do. No. 2, Massachusetts, new	7 00 a 7 25	9 75 a 10 00
Do No. 2, Halifax	— — a — —	— — a — —
Do. No. 3, Halifax	5 00 a 5 25	7 25 a 7 50
Salmon, pickled, No. 1	15 00 a 15 25	— — a 16 00
Do. pickled, per tierce	19 00 a 20 00	22 50 a 23 50
Shad, Connecticut, No. 1, ½ barrel	6 00 a — —	— — a — —
Shad, Southern, per barrel	5 00 a — —	— — a — —
Herring, pickled	3 25 a — —	4 — a 4 37½
Do. scalded, per box	— 45 a — —	— 40 a — 42
Herring, No. 1	— 25 a — —	— 30 a — 32

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FRUIT.—The importations of foreign fruit at this port are very large, including both dry and green. Our statistics apply to the former. The chief importations of raisins are derived from Malaga, in Spain. It appears that during the past year there was a great falling off in the crop, with a corresponding decrease of imports to the United States, and enhancement of prices. This is seen from the following tables:

IMPORTS OF MALAGA RAISINS INTO THE PORT OF NEW-YORK.

	Boxes.	Half do.	Quarter do.	Kegs.	Half do.
1851	246,989	69,446	77,585	7,155	4,958
1852	143,530	50,410	44,870	2,467	1,315
Decrease	103,459	19,036	32,715	4,688	3,643

	Prices, Dec. '51.	Dec. '52.
Raisins, Sumatra, per cask	$4 50 a $5 25	$8 25 a —
Raisins, bunch, per box	1 62½ a 1 65	2 80 a —
Raisins, layer	2 12½ a —	3 25 a —
Raisins, cluster	1 15 a —	1 87½ a —
Currants, Zante, per lb	5 a 5½	9 a 9½
Citron	22 a 23	23 a 24
Almonds, Languedoc	13½ a 14	14¾ a 15
Almonds, Mar's, soft shell	13 a —	14 a 14½
Almonds, Ivica, soft do.	12½ a 13	14 a 14½
Almonds, Sicily, soft do.	8 a 10	8 a 9
Almonds, shelled	— a —	— a 22
Sardines, per box	— a —	60 a 62½
Ginger, Canton, per case	7 00 a 7 25	— a —

IRON.—There has been considerable activity in iron during the past year, with a material enhancement of prices in both Scotch pig and rail-road bars. The many new uses to which iron is applied in building and to other purposes, have greatly augmented the consumption of the article. The duty being *ad valorem*, has advanced with the advancement in price, which tended to impart greater activity to our own manufactures. The demand for rail-road iron has become enormous, and some delay is likely to occur in meeting the wants of the vast number of roads either building or projected in the United States. We annex a comparative statement of prices:

PIG.	'51. December 31.	'59. December 31.
English and Scotch, per ton	$19 50 a 20 50	$30 00 a 31 60
American, No. 1	21 00 a 22 00	—
American, common	19 00 a 20 00	—
BAR.		
Fritzoe, T. V. F	105 00 a —	102 50 a 105 00
Norway, N. IF. K	105 00 a —	105 00 a —
Fork Stamps	105 00 a —	105 00 a —
WR-Lancashire	— a 90 00	— a 90 00
Russia, P. S. I	87 50 a 90 00	87 50 a 90 00
Swedes, ordinary sizes	80 00 a 82 50	77 50 a 80 00
American, rolled	59 00 a —	50 00 a —
English, refined	47 50 a 50 00	50 00 a —
English, common	34 00 a 35 00	65 00 a —
SHEET.		
Russia, first quality, per lb	10¾ a 11	11 a 11¼
English and American	3 a 3½	3 a 3½
HOOP.		
English and American, per cwt	3 00 a 3 50	3 00 a 3 50

WOOL.—Owing to secrecy on the part of some of the heavier holders of wool, it is impossible to get correct data in reference to stock at various periods. Unlike cotton, the supply is not influenced by the state of the weather at certain seasons, but the amount grown in all parts of the world is steadily on the increase. The supply is always equal to the demand. Prices are influenced by the condition of the manufacturing business, plentiness of money, and general condition of trade. We can only say that at present the stock on hand is about 8,000 bales foreign, and 500,000 pounds domestic.

Prices at the various dates were as follows:

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	'51. Dec. 31.	'52. Dec. 31.
Amer. Saxony fleece, per lb	42 a 44	55 a 60
" full blood merino	38 a 40	48 a 52
" half and three-quarters do	34 a 36	43 a 46
" native and one quarter do	30 a 32	38 a 40
" extra pulled	34 a 36	48 a 52
" superfine do	31 a 33	43 a 46
" No. 1, do	27 a 34	38 a 40
Peruvian, washed	26 a 28	33 a 35
Valparaiso, unwashed	11 a 13	13 a 14
South Amer. common, washed	15 a 17	13 a 14
" Entre Rios, do	20 a 22	15 a 17
" unwashed	9 a 10	8 a 9
" Cordova, washed	21 a 22	24 a 25
East India, washed	24 a 27	26 a 28
African, unwashed	9 a 18	10 a 18
" washed	18 a 25	20 a 35
Smyrna, washed	24 a 26	25 a 27
" unwashed	13 a 15	13 a 14
Mexican, do	14 a 15	18 a 20

ASHES.—The supply of ashes is influenced by circumstances, and prices fluctuate accordingly. A mild winter is unfavorable to their production. The largest quantities are made in the forest, bordering the northern lakes. They are leached in winter, barrelled, and conveyed on sleds, over snow, to the nearest market town. Previous to the discovery of the mode of manufacturing soda from sea water, or salt, called in commerce "soda ash," prices ruled much higher than at present. The largest exports go to the continent of Europe, and chiefly to France, where they are extensively used in the manufacture of soap. The total trade in ashes for the United States, amounts to about $1,000,000 per annum. The following will show the stock and prices at each of the dates mentioned:

	Stock.		Prices.	
1851.	Pots.	Pearls.	Pots.	Pearls.
June 30	4,338	740	$5 00	$5 50
Dec. 31	1,553	427	4 87½	5 62½
1852.				
June 30	3,343	1,019	4 81½	5 37½
Dec. 31	1,939	1,493	4 56¼	5 75

The receipts at this port were, for the year ending December 31:

	1851.	1852.
Pots, bbls	24,312	23,418
Pearls	7,813	9,826
Total	32,125	33,244

Prices in New-York, January 1:

	Pots.	Pearls.
1853, per 100 lbs	$4 56½ .. $5 75	a $— —
1852, "	4 87½ .. 5 62½	a — —
1851, "	5 50 .. 5 56¼	a 5 62½
1850, "	6 50 .. 6 12½	a — —

TOBACCO.—This article has exhibited but little variation in prices, as far as that of domestic growth is concerned. Crops have been large, and generally for the two past years, have sold at remunerating prices. The stocks of domestic and foreign in this port are shown by the following tables:

Stock.		Dec. '51.	Dec. '52.
Kentucky	hhds	4,815	9,300
Virginia	"	281	200
Ohio	"	—	—
Maryland	"	—	—
Total		5,096	9,500
Cuba	bales	1,034	6,089
Havana	"	722	3,313
Yara	"	454	300
Ambalima	"	252	149
St. Domingo	"	100	—
Brazil	"	—	—
Maracaibo	"	—	189
Honduras	"	—	65

	Prices, Jan. '51.	Jan. '52.
Kentucky	4 a 8½ c.	4½ a 8¼
Cuba	20 a 23	20 a 22½
Assorted lots, Havana	30 a 45	30 a 50
Fillers	25 a 30	25 a 30
Yara	35 a 50	33 a 38
St. Domingo	12½ a 16½	Nom.
Ambalima	12 a 16	13 a 22

HEMP.—This article has become a domestic staple prouctdion of great importance, and is chiefly raised in Kentucky and Missouri. We have not space to go into its history, or the valuable uses to which it is applied, whether in the navy, general ship-building, or in its use for cotton bagging and rope. Its consumption is constantly on the increase, and during the past two years prices have ruled higher than for some time previously. The stock of all kinds in this market may be seen from the following table:

Stock.		Dec. '51.	Dec. '52.
Clean, Russia	tons	335	250
Outshot, Russia	"	—	none.
Manilla, afloat & in store	bales	1,800	7,500
Sisal	"	—	400
Italian	"	75	250
Jute	"	300	none.
Dew-rotted American	"	—	1,600
Dressed	"	6,200	250

	Prices, Dec. '51.	Dec. '52.
Russia, clean, per ton	$205 00 a 210	$200 00 a 205 00
Russia, outshot	195 00 a 205	— — a — —
Manilla, per lb	00 11 a 00	00 10½ a 00 10¾
Sisal	00 10 a 00	00 10 a 00 10¼
Italian, per ton	240 00 a 250	215 00 a 225 00
Jute	80 00 a 85	100 00 a 105 00
Amer. dew rot	112 50 a 125	135 00 a 145 00
" dressed	150 00 a 180	155 00 a 195 00
" water rot.	— — a —	— — a — —

LEATHER AND HIDES.—The year just closed left a moderately light stock of all descriptions of leather, and an active demand. We give the following statement, showing the stock on hand December 31, 1851, and the present time:

	Dec. '51.	Dec. '52.
Stock on hand of sole leather	390,000	250,000 est.

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In the stock on hand at the present time may be mentioned about 40,000 sides held by speculators, leaving the actual stock on the market about 200,000 sides. The light and middle lots hemlock may be said to be quite scarce, and with an upward tendency, while the heavier descriptions are slow to move except at low and unsatisfactory prices. In oak tannages the reverse may be said—light weights are dull as compared with middle and heavy weights—(an unusual feature)—but which may be accounted for, in part, by the great increase in the consumption of heavy weights oak leather for belting purposes. In the commencement of the year 1851, all descriptions of sole leather were low, considering the cost of production. Light and middle weights sold at from 12 to 14½ cents; over weights, 10 to 13½ cents; good damaged, 9 to 13 cents; and poor damaged, 7 to 9 cents—prices which were ruinously low to the producer. Along in the spring a leading dealer entered the market and purchased largely on speculation—purchasing considerable to arrive at extremely low rates—that is, below the cost of production. This turned the scales, and prices immediately moved upwards. Early in the fall, prices gave way somewhat, notwithstanding the demand was enormously large, and the stocks continued light. Within a month back, owing to the bare state of the market for nearly all descriptions of leather, and a perceptible increase of demand for consumption, prices have slightly advanced, showing a much higher range than those of December, 1851. We quote the present prices of sole as follows: Light and middle weights hemlock, 16 to 18 cents; over weights, 13½ to 16 cents; good damaged, 13 to 15 cents; poor damaged, 9 to 11 cents; light slaughter oak, 22 to 24 cents; middle and over weights, 22 to 26 cents; hemlock slaughter in rough, 17 to 20 cents; hemlock calf in rough, 30 to 40 cents; finished calf-skins (French), 70 to 90 cents per pound; do. (American) oak, 65 to 90 cents; hemlock, light, 50 to 60 cents; upper leather, per foot, 12 to 16 cents. The following features are worthy of remark: in the manufacture of fancy upper leather an astonishing improvement has taken place in the style and quality of the articles produced, resulting to the great profit of those attaining a high perfection in their art. In the articles of enameled and polished leather, and fine calf-skins, the New-York manufacturer is unsurpassed, and, in some descriptions, unequaled. Of sole leather, the New-York tanners produce the best in the world. No better proof of this is required than the rejection of foreign leather by the belt makers, and the adoption of American tanned leather in its stead. Leather, in the belting business, is subjected to the severest tests, both as to tension and wear and tear, and occasionally to imperviousness. Within the last three or four years we have, in alluding to this branch of American manufacture, endeavored to impress upon the tanners the importance of improving their art; and we were gratified to be told that our remarks had proved of great service to the American tanner and currier.

	Prices, Dec. '51.	Dec '52.
Oak, sole, (slaughter) light, per lb.	22 a 25	21 a 24
Oak, middle	21 a 23	20 a 22
Oak, heavy	21 a 33	20 a 22
Oak, dry hide	18 a 21	20 a 22
Oak, Ohio	10 a 22	90 a 22
Oak, Southern, light	19 a 20	16 a 18
Oak, B. A., wet salted	20 a 22	20 a 23
Hemlock, light, R. G. and B. A.	13 a 14½	17 a 18
Hemlock, light, Orinoco, &c	13 a 14½	16 a 17
Hemlock, middle, R. G. and B. A.	13 a 14½	17 a 18
Hemlock, middle, Orinoco, &c	12½ a 14	16 a 17
Hemlock, heavy	11 a 14	14 a 16
Hemlock, good, damaged	10 a 11	13 a 15
Hemlock, upper, in rough, slaughter	— a —	18 a 20

HIDES.

STOCKS.	Dec, '51.	Dec '52.
Ox and cow ..... number	125,000	45,000

	Dec. '51.	Dec. '52.
Buenos Ayres, 20 a 24 lb., selected, per lb	$0 11½ a 0 13	$0 15½ a 0 16
Rio Grande, 20 a 23 lb., selected, per lb	0 11½ a 0 13	0 14½ a 0 15¼
R. G. and B. A. green-salted cow	0 5¾ a 0 6	0 7¾ a 0 8
Gambia and Bissau	0 00 a 0 00	0 15 a 0 15¼
California	0 00 a 0 00	0 00 a 0 10¼

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	Prices Dec. '51.	Dec. '52.
Orinoco, selected	0 11¼ a 0 00	0 14 a 0 00
San Juan, as they run	0 10 a 0 00	0 11¾ a 0 12¼
Savanilla, &c., as they run	0 0 a 0 8½	0 10½ a 0 11
Curacoa, &c., salted and dry, as they run	0 8 a 0 9	0 9 a 0 11
Maracaibo, salted and dry, selected	0 8 a 0 10	0 9½ a 0 13
Maranham, ox and cow, selected	0 8 a 0 00	0 9¾ a 0 12
Matamoras, selected	0 10 a 0 00	0 00 a 0 12½
Porto Cabello, (direct,) open, selected	0 9¾ a 0 10	0 12 a 0 13
Irish and English slaughter	0 5½ a 0 5¾	0 6 a 0 6¾
Dry southern,(cash,) as they run	0 00 a 0 00	0 0 a 0 00
Calcutta Buffalo	0 8 a 0 00	0 8¾ a 0 9
Calcutta, dry	0 85 a 1 05	0 95 a 1 00
Calcutta, dead green	1 05 a 1 12½	1 00 a 1 10
Calcutta, slaughter	1 20 a 1 27	1 15 a 1 28
B. A. horse, dry and green	0 65 a 1 00	0 90 a 1 37½

OILS.—Oils form a large branch of trade, and one subject to much fluctuation in prices. Like most other articles of commerce, they have ruled at higher prices during the past year, as will be seen from the following comparative statement:

	Dec. '51.	Dec. '52.
Florence, 30 flanks, per box	— a 3 75	— —
Olive, 12 bottles, baskets and boxes	$2 65 a 2 70	$3 37½ a 3 50
Olive, in casks, per gallon	0 87½ a 0 90	1 07½ a 1 10
Palm, per lb	0 5½ a 0 6	0 07 a —
Linseed, city made, per gallon	0 62 a —	— 0 68
Linseed, English	0 61 a 0 62	0 66 a 0 68
Whale	0 56 a 0 57	0 60 a 0 62½
Whale, refined, winter	0 65 a —	0 80 a —
Sperm, crude	1 25 a 1 27	1 20 a —
Sperm, winter, unbleached	— a 1 32	1 31 a 1 33
Elephant, refined, bleached	— a 0 70	0 83 a —
Lard oil, winter	0 77 a 0 85	0 90 a 0 95
Red oil, city, (cash)	— a —	— a 0 50

LEAD.—Owing to the diversion of labor from the lead mines in Missouri, and at Galena, Dubuque, &c., to the gold region of California, the supply has been diminished and prices materially enhanced. The consequence has been, that foreign importations have increased —the largest quantity having been obtained from Spain. We thus see that Galena lead, on the 31st December, 1851, sold for $4 45, and on the 31st December, 1852, at $6 per one hundred pounds:

	Dec. '51.	Dec. '52.
Galena, per 100 lbs	$4 42½ a 4 45	— $6 00
Spanish	4 12½ a 4 25	5 62½ a 5 75
Bar	4 75 a —	6 25 a —
Sheet and pipe	4 75 a 5 00	6 50 a —

COAL.—The extent and value of the coal trade is too well known to require any extended notice. Both the supply and consumption are every year on the increase, and so nearly balance each other as to prevent any great fluctuation in prices.

	Dec. '51.	Dec. '52
Liverpool Orrel, per chaldron	$7 25 a —	$10 25 a 10 50
Scotch	— a —	6 25 a —
Sidney	5 50 a —	6 50 a —
Anthracite, per 2,000 lbs	5 00 a 5 50	5 00 a 5 50

NAVAL STORES.—One of our most important productions is found in the yield of our southern pine forest. All articles obtained from the pine have undergone a material improvement within the past year, as will be seen by the annexed comparison of prices:

	Dec. '51.	Dec. '52.
Turpentine, soft, North County, per 280 lbs.	$3 06¼ a —	$4 12½ a 4 25
Do. Wilmington	3 06¼ a —	4 00 a —
Tar, per barrel	1 75 a 1 87½	2 00 a 2 50
Pitch, city	1 50 a 1 75	1 81¼ a 2 00
Rosin, common (delivered)	1 20 a 1 30	1 40 a 1 55
Rosin, white, per 280 lbs	2 00 a 3 75	2 50 a 5 75
Spirits turpentine, per gallon	0 35 a 0 37	0 62½ a 0 64½

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HAY.—This article, owing to a partial failure in the crop the past year, has ruled higher the present winter than for several years previous. We annex a statement of prices:

	Dec. '51.	Dec. '52.
Per 100 lbs	$0 75 a 0 80	$1 12½ a 1 25

WINES AND SPIRITS.—In the spirit trade the chief advance has been in French brandies and wines, owing to the partial failure of the vintage. We annex comparative prices of wines and spirits:

	Dec. '51.	Dec. '52.
Madeira, per gallon	0 80 a $3 00	0 80 a $3 00
Sherry	0 55 a 3 00	0 60 a 3 00
Port	0 75 a 2 00	0 75 a 2 00
Lisbon	0 47½ a 0 57½	0 45 a 0 55
Canary	0 60 a 0 85	0 65 a 0 95
Sicily Madeira	0 55 a 0 80	0 50 a 0 80
Red	0 30 a 0 45	0 30 a 0 45
Marseilles and Cette Madeira	0 35 a 0 37½	0 40 a 0 45
Marseilles and Cette Port	0 35 a 0 37½	0 40 a 0 45
Burgundy Port	0 45 a 0 50	0 50 a 0 60
Malaga, dry	0 40 a 0 45	0 45 a 0 48
Malaga, sweet	0 36 a 0 39	0 45 a 0 48
Claret, per cask	0 17 a 0 30	0 17 a 0 30
Claret in bottles	1 75 a 5 00	1 75 a 4 00

	Dec. '51.	Dec. '52.
Brandy, Otard, Dupuy & Co	1 95 a 3 50	2 60 a 6 50
Pinet, Castillon & Co	1 95 a 3 50	2 60 a 3 50
Leger Freres	1 95 a 3 50	2 60 a 3 50
Hennessy	1 95 a 3 50	2 60 a 3 50
J. & F. Martell	1 95 a 3 50	2 30 a 3 50
J. Dennis Hy. Mounie & Co	— a —	2 30 a 3 50
Marett & Co.	— a —	2 60 a 3 50
Sazerac	1 90 a 3 00	2 30 a 6 50
Planat & Co	1 95 a 3 50	2 25 a 3 50
X. M. S. & Co.'s, J. Robin & Co	— a —	2 25 a 3 50
Vineyard Propriet's Co	1 90 a 2 00	2 00 a 3 00
G. Longuet Pere et Fils	— a —	2 25 a 4 00
A. Denys	— a —	1 80 a —
Ph Godard, pale & colored	1 20 a 2 60	1 60 a 2 75
Pellevoisin	1 25 a 1 35	1 90 a 2 00
A. Seignette	1 25 a 1 35	1 90 a 2 00
Alex Seignette	1 25 a 1 35	1 90 a 2 00
Rasteau Charruyer	1 30 a 1 35	1 85 a 1 90
Hivert Jeune	— a —	1 85 a 1 90
T. T Elgerton's	1 25 a 1 30	2 00 a —
United Proprietor's	1 25 a 1 30	1 85 a 1 90

	Dec. '51.	Dec. '52.
E. Gilhou Freres	— a —	1 70 a 3 50
H. L. L Chatenet	1 20 a 1 25	1 60 a 1 65
Chatenet Je	1 25 a 1 30	1 60 a 1 65
A. Moreau	1 25 a 1 30	1 50 a 1 55
J. J. Dupuy	1 05 a 1 25	1 50 a 1 55
A. Camus	— a —	1 70 a 1 75
L Gaudric	1 05 a 1 30	1 05 a 1 30
F. Desmaries, Je	1 15 a 1 40	1 40 a 1 85
G. Garreau	1 25 a 1 30	1 90 a 1 95
Cashman's Rochelle	1 20 a 1 30	1 90 a 1 95
Cashman's Bordea'x	1 05 a 1 20	1 60 a 1 70
P Michel & Fils	1 20 a 1 30	1 55 a 1 65
Schmids, Lane & Co.	— a —	1 65 a 1 75
Star Proprietors'	— a —	1 80 a 1 95
American	0 28 a 0 29	0 30 a 0 31
Rum, Jamaica, fourth proof	1 00 a 1 87½	1 20 a 1 75
St. Croix, 3d proof.	0 62½ a 0 75	0 55 a 0 70
New-England, pure	0 26 a 0 27	0 27 a 0 28
Gin, Edgerton's	— a —	1 00 a 1 10
Meder's Swan	0 85 a —	1 10 a —
Rynbende's Pine Apple	0 85 a —	1 05 a 1 10
Star	0 85 a —	0 85 a —
Cashman's Schiedam	0 85 a 0 90	1 00 a 1 10
Knickerbocker	0 80 a 0 85	0 85 a 0 90
Bouquet	1 00 a 1 05	1 05 a 1 10
Clover Leaf	— a —	1 10 a 1 15
J. & J. Nolet's Imp. Eagle	0 75 a 0 80	1 00 a —
Simpson's Double Swan	— a —	1 15 a —
New-York	0 28 a 0 29	0 30 a 0 32
Cider Brandy, Jersey	0 60 a 0 75	0 40 a 0 42
Whiskey, Jackson's Malt	1 50 a 1 63	1 50 a 1 62½
Domestic, in bbls.	— a 0 22	0 25 a 0 25½

FREIGHTS.—Rates to European ports during 1851 ruled low, and there was no improvement of moment until the latter half of 1852. We annex quotations:

	Dec. '51.	Dec. '52.
To Liverpool—	s. d. s. d.	s. d. s. d.
Flour, per bbl	0 9 a —	3 0 a 3 6
Rosin, "	0 9 a 1 0	3 0 a 3 3
Grain, per bushel	0 3 a 0 3½	0 9½ a 0 11
Cotton, per lb	0 0½ a 0 05-32	— 0 0⅜
Cheese and lard, per ton	20 0 a —	30 0 a —
To London—		
Beef, in tierces	4 0 a 4 6	5 6 a —
Bacon	25 0 a —	30 0 a 35 0
Flour	1 9 a —	3 6 a —
Naval stores	2 0 a —	3 6 a —
To California—		
Per foot measurement	50c. a 60c.	55c. a 85c.

We conclude our article by giving the comparative prices of several articles, few of which require any special remark further than to state that the most of them have, like other commodities, reached higher prices than those of the previous year:

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	Dec. '51,		Dec. '52,	
SEEDS.				
Clover, per lb	0 08½ a 0 09		0 10½ a 0 10¼	
Timothy, mowed and reaped, per tierce	14 00 a 18 00		17 50 a 22 50	
Flax, American, rough, per bushel	1 35 a 1 37½		1 45 a 1 50	
Linseed, Calcutta	— a —		1 70 a 1 75	
SALT.				
Turk's Island, per bushel	0 20 a —		0 27 a 0 28	
St. Martin's	0 18½ a 0 20		— a —	
Liverpool, ground, per sack	0 90 a 0 92½		— a 1 20	
Liverpool, fine	1 05 a 1 20		— a —	
Liverpool, fine Ashton's	1 40 a 1 45		2 00 a 2 25	
WHALEBONE.				
Northwest coast	0 46 a 0 47		0 47 a 0 50	
LIME.				
Common Rockland, per barrel	1 00 a —		1 12½ a —	
Lump do. do.	1 31¼ a —		1 37½ a —	
TALLOW.				
American, per lb	0 7¼ a —		0 10 a 0 10¼	
Slaughtered hogs	0 6 a 0 6¼		0 8 a 0 8½	
HOPS.				
Eastern and Western, new	0 30 a 0 35		0 21 a 0 25	

The year 1852 will long be remembered and looked to as one of unusual prosperity in nearly all branches of trade, indicative of the rapid march of the United States in all the elements of real greatness.

ART. III.—VALLEY OF THE AMAZON.

No. II.

BOLIVIA TRIBUTARY TO THE ATLANTIC—FRIENDLY DISPOSITION TO THE UNITED STATES—POLICY OF COMMERCE—FREE NAVIGATION OF THE AMAZON—LLAMAS AND WOOL—POTOSI—GOLD, SILVER, DIAMONDS AND QUICKSILVER—PERUVIAN BARK—WONDERFUL FERTILITY OF SOIL—HOT SPRINGS AND RUINS—COCOA, ITS MARVELOUS PROPERTIES—SALT—PORTAGE BETWEEN THE LA PLATA AND AMAZON—THE LOST MINES OF URUCUMAGUAN, THEIR FABULOUS WEALTH—GOLD WASHINGS—PORTS OF ENTRY, AND STEAM NAVIGATION UPON THE AMAZONIAN TRIBUTARIES OF BOLIVIA—HEALTH AND LONGEVITY—OPENING THE NAVIGATION OF THE AMAZON—FREE PORTS IN BOLIVIA—CARAVANS OVER THE MOUNTAINS VS. STEAMBOATS DOWN THE RIVERS—FOUNTAIN-HEADS OF THE AMAZON AND THE MISSISSIPPI—LAKES ITASCA AND MOROCOCHA, 10,000 MILES APART, THEIR WATERS MEET IN THE FLORIDA PASS—PRICES OF PRODUCE ON THE UPPER AMAZON—COTTON CLOTH AND WAX THE CURRENCY OF THE COUNTRY—GOLD, AND HOSTILE INDIANS—GREAT SARSAPARILLA COUNTRY—COURSE OF TRADE WITH THE UPPER AMAZON—PORTS OF ENTRY—STEAMBOAT NAVIGATION TO THE ANDES—MINERAL WEALTH—LIEUTENANT HERNDON'S REPORT.

(Continued from May No.)

BOLIVIA has but one seaport on the Pacific, that is Cobija—an open roadstead, and a miserable village, at the head of the great desert of Atacama. The land transportation between this port and the agricultural districts of the republic is too rough, too tedious, and too expensive, ever to admit of its becoming a commercial emporium. The direction in which Bolivia looks for an outlet to market for her produce is along her navigable water-courses that empty into the Amazon, and then down that stream to the sea, where the winds and the currents are such as to require that produce to pass by our doors.

Bolivia understands this, and her President has expressed the most earnest desire to draw closely the bonds of friendship, commerce, and navigation, which are destined to bind his country to this.

Bolivia, we have seen, owns navigable streams that are tributary both to the Amazon and La Plata. The free air of heaven and the glad waters of the

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earth were put here by the Almighty for the well-being of mankind. Use without exhaustion is the only condition annexed by the laws of man to the air and water, being considered as the common property of the world.

Have not, therefore, Bolivia and the seven other independent nations that own navigable streams emptying into the Amazon or the La Plata, but which do not own its mouth, the right to follow and to "use without exhaustion" each its own navigable waters to the sea?—And does not the "policy of commerce" require the enforcement of that right, so far as it concerns any or all of these eight upland nations which may wish to trade with us and the rest of the world through those natural channels and commercial highways?

This is one of the questions that we propose to consider. But before showing who it is that by a Japanese policy here at our doors is shutting out commerce from the finest portions of the world, we wish to show that the free navigation of the Amazon is not an abstraction, but that there are now there, in actual existence, all the elements of a profitable, large, and growing commerce, and that, therefore, the question is one of practical importance. We will, therefore, speak of the productions of this interesting—we had almost said classic—land.

In the Puna country of Bolivia we find the llama, the vicuna, and the alpaca. Immense flocks of sheep feed in its pastures and lie down upon its hills.

Our friend, Lieutenant Gibbon, who about two years ago was sent with Lieutenant Herndon by the Navy Department to explore the Amazon from its sources to its mouth, writes that it is a wool-growing country; that immense flocks of sheep are tended there. Indeed, he says, the country is over-populated.

Speaking, a few weeks since, with a northern manufacturer upon this subject, he informed me that he had then just bought $100,000 worth of this Puna wool, which, instead of coming down the Amazon, in sight of which almost it was clipped, this Japanese policy, that keeps the mouth of that river closed, had compelled it to go up into the region of the clouds, in order that it might cross the Andes and reach the free waters of the Pacific. Its voyage was then around Cape Horn to Boston.

Chuquisaca, or the "City of Silver," is situated, as already stated, on the "divide" between the Amazon and the La Plata.

On one side the waters of the Pilcomayo flow south; on the other, those of the Madeira flow north, on their way to the "king of rivers."

Near by Chuquisaca is Potosi. Here we pass from the regions of gold and diamonds to those of quicksilver and silver.

Since the discovery of the mines of Potosi there have been extracted from them not less than *sixteen hundred millions of dollars!* The vein is said to be as rich now as ever it was; but it is not worked for the want of mechanical force, such as steam and the facilities of commerce alone can give.

It is from the Atlantic slopes of Bolivia that we get the bark for the manufacture of quinine. The cinchona, or the Peruvian bark, as it is called, is gathered there on those navigable watercourses of the Atlantic, and taken thence on the backs of sheep and asses six hundred miles across the Andes to the Pacific.

Two millions dollars' worth of this bark was gathered there the last year. Does not this afford a commercial basis sufficient to support steam navigation up the Amazon to Bolivia? Bolivia has there a thrifty and industrious population of a million and a half, whose commercial wants would be supplied by this new route. One of her cities (Potosi) has been supplied with water, at the cost of $3,000,000 to construct the works. Can commerce with such a people be an abstraction? The productions of the eastern slopes of Bolivia are thus described by Castelnau:

"The productions of the country are in great variety. Sugar-cane, which is gathered eight months after planting, is the staple of the province of Cercado. Coffee, successfully cultivated in this province, as well as in that of Chiquitos, yields fruit in two years after being planted, requiring but the slightest care.—The cacao, recently introduced in these two provinces, bears in three or four years at most. The tamarind, which succeeds in the same localities, but especially in the country of Chiquitos, requires five years.

"Cotton yields annual crops: there are two species—the white and the yellow.

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"Tobacco grows, so to speak, without cultivation in the province of Valle-Grande, in which it is the principal article of trade. Indigo, of which there are three cultivated species, and one wild, is equally abundant. Maize ripens in three months, without regard to season. It is cultivated more particularly in the province of Cercado.

"The cassada produces in eight months after planting. There are two species of it—the one sweet, the other bitter; the former is a substitute for the potato, and even for bread itself—the latter serves only to make starch. There are many varieties or species of bananas, which produce a year after planting. They are cultivated especially in the province of Cercado. Two species of rice, white and red, are cultivated, both in the province of Cercado and Chiquitos, yielding crops every five or six months. It is said to grow wild in the country of Chiquitos.

"The vine, which flourishes particularly in the province of Cordillera, where it was cultivated in the missions until the epoch of independence, is not now made use of. It will, perhaps, hereafter, be one of the principal products of that country.

"Wheat, barley, and the potato, could be cultivated with advantage in the provinces of Chiquitos and Cordillera, but at this time they are neglected, except in the province of Villa-Grande. The culture of coca has commenced in the province of Cercado, where it is found wild; so also the quinquina on the mountains of Samaipata. As already mentioned, fruit abounds in this region —oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, papayes, pomegranates, muskmelons, water melons, chirimoyas, (which the Brazilians call *fruta do conde*,) pineapples, &c. The last mentioned of these fruits grow wild and in great abundance in the woods of Chiquitos. We met with it particularly the day before our arrival at Santa Anna. It is fine flavored, but left such a burning sensation in the mouth that I bitterly repented having tasted it.

"In the province are gathered in great abundance jalap, quinquina bark, sarsaparilla, vanilla, roucou, copahu, ipecacuanha, caoutchouc, copal, &c.

"Dye-woods, cabinet-woods, and building timber abound. The inhabitants gather with care great quantities of gums, roots, and barks, to which they attribute medicinal virtues of every kind. At several points in the department, especially in the provinces of Valle-Grande and Cordillera, are found iron, and traces of mercury. Gold is found in the province of Cercado, near the Pueblo of De San Xavi. Mines of silver were worked in the mountains of Colchus by the Jesuits. Don Sebastian Rancos, whilst he was governor of Chiquitos, announced to the government that diamonds of a very fine water had been found in the brooks about Santo-Corazon."

So anxious is Bolivia for the introduction of the steamboat upon her rivers, that she has offered for it in fee-simple 20,000 square miles of her richest lands.

To add to the interest, the resources' the charms and wealth of this country, there are the hot springs of Tolula with their wonderful properties; the ruins of Samaipata and Tiahuanaco, which, with their symbols and their hieroglyphic records, tell of a people anterior to the Incas, and, in the opinion of Castelnau, as superior to them in civilization as the conquerors were.

The passage through the forest of the Madeira valley, notwithstanding all that he had seen on his way from Rio through Brazil to this point, excited to raptures the imagination of this observant traveler. "The landscape," says he, "was the most beautiful, and the vegetation, changing its aspect every instant, constantly presented new objects to us."

The beautiful valleys of the Cordilleras, which produce the coca plant, were to him objects also of great interest.—"This vegetable, says he, "has properties so marvelous that it enables the Indians, without any other nourishment the while, to perform forced marches of five or six days." It is a stimulant, and by chewing it alone the Indians will perform journeys of 300 miles without appearing in the least fatigued.*

* The coca is described by Castelnau as a bush which rarely attains six feet in height, and does not often exceed three; its foliage is of a bright green, its flower white, and its fruit small and red. When the plants are about eighteen inches high they are transplanted from the seed beds into fields called cocules. The ripe leaves are gathered with the fingers. They are dried by spreading them in the sun, sometimes on woolen cloths. This operation requires great care; for the plant must be protected from all dampness, which changes its color, and thus diminishes its value. It is then packed in bags, weighing from fifty to one hundred and fifty pounds, which are often transported to great dis-

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In the province of Chichos are many mines of silver, and vast herds of cattle.

In the province of Lipaz, where the climate is cold and the agricultural staple barley, llamas, vicuiias, alpacas, with deer and the beautiful chinchillos, abound.—Here a kind of copperas called "piedra *lipaz*" is found; also amethysts and other precious stones; and here, too, is a great plain, 18 by 120 miles, covered with salt already fit for table use.

The Paray, a tributary of the Amazon through the Madeira, is navigable to Cuatro-Ojos, which is thirty leagues only from Santa Cruz, the capital of the republic.

But Lipaz is far to the south. It is of the Amazonian water-shed that we now wish to speak; though the tributaries of the great branches of the Amazon and the La Plata, of the Madeira, the Tapajos, and the Paraguay, so interlap among themselves that it is as difficult to find the "divide" between the Madeira and the Paraguay as it is to find it between the Madeira and the Tapajos.

In 1772 Louis Pinto de Souza caused a vessel of considerable size to be transported from the head-waters of the Madeira to those of the La Plata, that he might thus set the example of an inland navigation. The portage between the navigable waters of the two was only two miles and a half.

It is among the upper tributaries of the Madeira that the tradition of the country places the lost mines of Urucumaguan, with riches equal in value to the fabulous wealth of the gilded city of Manoa.*

On the banks of this stream are now found *placers*, which, using only gourds and calabashes for washers, will give the miner his $2 or $3 per day.

Lakes, too, are found up its tributaries, which yield the most abundant supplies of salt. The rivers abound in fish, and the woods with game.

Lieutenant Gibbon went to Bolivia to explore the valley of the Madeira, and he is now on his way down that river. The Bolivians hailed him as a benefactor, and afforded him every facility in their power.

While he was in Cochabamba the attention of that government was called to the subject of establishing, on the navigable waters of the Madeira, ports of entry to foreign commerce, and of contracting with a company to put steamers on her water-courses. The President of the republic received the proposition in the most gracious manner. Hence the valley of the Madeira becomes an object of special interest at this time, and we may therefore be pardoned for lingering in it so long.

Much of that country is unknown, and the stories that are told of its riches and its productions are so dazzling, that we of a severe climate, accustomed as we are to a stingy soil, from which its fruits have to be wrung by long and patient labor, are disposed to receive eye-witness accounts of them with some degree of allowance at least.

So far, we have made our statements, with regard to this subject, partly upon the authority of intelligent citizens of that and the neighboring country with whom we have conversed, in Peru, and partly upon the authority of M. Castelnau—a man of standing and erudition, who was sent out by the French government especially to examine that country, and with whom, therefore, overcoloring would be a crime; and, finally, upon the authority of officers whom also the government of the United States has sent there for the same purpose.

As being all of a piece with the reports which these give, we quote from the letter of a friend, written from Lima last summer, and which was before the publication of Castelnau's travels. Speak-

tances. The Indians mix the coca with a small quantity of lime, and constantly carry a small bag of it in all their excursions. They take it from three to six times a day. Dr. Tschudi (Travels in Peru, page 453,) mentions an Indian of sixty-two years of age, who was employed by him, and though at very hard work for five days, took no other nourishment, and rested but two hours of the night. Immediately, or soon after this, he accomplished a journey of one hundred miles in two days, and said that he was ready to do the same thing again if they would give him a new supply of coca. Castelnau says he himself knew of instances as extraordinary. In the time of the Incas the coca was regarded as sacred.

The importance of the coca trade, however, is diminishing as the red man disappears. From 1785 to 1789, inclusively, Castelnau represents the consumption of this leaf in the vice-royalty of Lima alone at three millions and a half of pounds, and worth one million and a quarter of money, and the total consumption of Peru at two millions and a half of dollars.

The question comes up, therefore: May not the free navigation of the Amazon introduce this valuable plant into the commerce of the world?

* Not long before Lieutenant Herndon was in Peru, a party of Peruvians, who had been on a gold exploration to the Amazon country, returned. They had nothing but gourds to wash with, and though they met with many untoward circumstances, they extracted seven hundred pounds of gold and returned home with it.

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ing of Bolivia and her enlightened President, that friend says:

"Since I last wrote to you, I have made the acquaintance of Don ——, a native of Chile, and whom Gibbon saw at Cochabamba, in Bolivia. This Don —— is undoubtedly a clever man. He says he has come to Lima to make some arrangement concerning the monopoly of Peruvian bark. * * * However that may be, he pretends that Belzu, the President of Bolivia, is favorably disposed towards us, and would grant privileges to a steam navigation company were application made to him in due form. As I know of no other individual in Bolivia with whom I could communicate on the subject of Amazonian navigation, I did not hesitate to make use of him; for, in my opinion, there is no time to be lost if the United States intend to secure the interior trade of South America for its citizens. Don —— declares that the Marmoré is navigable for steamers from a point near Cochabamba to its confluence with the Guapuré or Itenez; and so onward to the junction of the latter with the Bené, forming together the Rio Madeira; that the Cachuelas, or falls of the Madeira, are neither impassable nor formidable, and may be easily ascended by steamers, as there is plenty of water and no rocks. To prove this, he asserts that a Brazilian schooner ascended the Marmoré to Trinidad, and fired a salute at that place, about two years ago. After passing the falls, the river is of course navigable to the Amazon. Admitting this statement to be true, (and I am inclined to believe it, as the Brazilians constantly ascend the Itenez to Matto Grosso,) there is open navigation from Para to within a few leagues of Cochabamba, at least 2,000 miles; and this is not so incredible when we consider the length of navigation on the Missouri river. The accessibility of the Bolivian rivers will, however, be ascertained with greater certainty after Gibbon has passed through the Cachuelas of the Madeira, as it is to be hoped that he will sound, or otherwise minutely examine, the different rapids of that river, and correct the errors which —— says are in the chart made by Palacios, a copy of which I sent you by Mr. O'Brian, for Herndon.

"The account —— gives of the products of the country lying on the banks of the Marmoré is very glowing. He says that the richest cocoa and coffee grow almost wild, and that the greater part of the former is consumed by the monkeys and birds, for the want of means of transporting it to a market. Sugar-cane, of gigantic dimensions, is found everywhere; white and yellow cotton, of a staple equal to Sea Island. Several kinds of cascarilla grow in abundance, as also sarsaparilla and gums, ornamental and other woods, and honey and wax, in immense quantities. Crossing the Marmoré from Exaltacion to the southwest, you arrive at the river Machuno, which, according to ——, is a small Pactolus: and he assures me that the whole country between the Marmoré and the Itenez, from latitude 14 deg. to the north, is a gold district as rich as California. *My* opinion decidedly is, that the whole country traversed by the rivers opening from the slope of the eastern Cordillera, from Santa Cruz de la Tierra, in Bolivia, to the mouth of the Ucayali, in Peru, is one immense gold and silver region—gold being found in the flats near the rivers, and silver in the mountains. I will venture to predict that the same region contains diamonds and other precious stones, and probably some unknown to the lapidary at present.

"The silver mines of Carabaya were immensely productive when worked by Salcedo; so much so, that the vice-regal government trumped up an accusation against him, tried, and ordered his execution, to obtain possession of the mines by confiscation. The attempt failed, as the Indians, who were devoted to Salcedo, refused to give any information to the government respecting the mines, and they have remained unworked up to the present time. Gold is known to exist in considerable quantities at Carabaya, and in the Pampa del Sacramento. I have seen specimens from the former place. But gold is the last attraction for emigration to Bolivia. The soil and its products are the source from which the wanderers from foreign lands are to find plenty and happiness. The climate is said to be good, and the Indians, except upon the lower part of the Bené, peaceable and well disposed to the whites. In short, according to ——, the east of Bolivia affords the greatest sphere for trade and colonization.

"Without, however, placing implicit credence in what —— states, I determined to avail myself of the influence

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he undoubtedly possesses with President Belzu to forward as far as possible our plan of opening the navigation of the Amazon, and to prevent, as much as I could, the success of the Brazilian policy of exclusion. Having ascertained from —— that Guarayos, a village of four hundred inhabitants, situated at the junction of the Marmoré with the Itenez, on the Bolivian side, and Exaltacion, a town of four thousand inhabitants, were the principal places on the Marmoré below the town of Trinidad, I proposed to him to write to Belzu, and induce him to declare those places ports of entry for foreign commerce. He caught at the idea at once, and said it was '*muy luminosa*,' and wrote to the President by the last post upon the subject. He says that Belzu has declared that he will make no concessions to the Brazilleros; that the *Norte Americanos* are the people for him, as they will bring wealth, force and civilization to Bolivia.

"I cannot doubt that the Bolivian government will declare the places mentioned above—viz: Guarayos and Exaltacion—ports of entry to foreign commerce. In that event, there will be one great point gained. It will show that Bolivia wishes to open commercial relations with us; therefore we can insist that Brazil shall not throw any impediment in the way of our trade with that republic. Unfortunately, we, as individuals, have neither the power nor the means of carrying out this gigantic, this magnificent plan of opening the finest and most extensive region of the globe to population and civilization. We have gone on so far unaided by the counsel, or even the countenance, of the general government, with the exception of ——.

"For myself, I feel full of this vast subject; for I know that within less than one hundred leagues of me is the margin of those great solitudes, replete with riches, and occupying the wild space where millions of the human race might dwell in plenty and happiness, where nature annually wastes more than would support the population of China in comfort, and where the most luscious fruits and fairest flowers grow and bloom unknown and unnoticed. When I reflect on this, and on the miles of rivers rolling on in silence and neglect, I feel doubly the want of power and money to accomplish their introduction to the civilized world.

"To return to the question of internal navigation in South America. Enclosed you will find a slip from the 'Commercio' newspaper, published in this city, containing an account of the departure of a small expedition from Paucartambo to explore the river Madre de Dios.

"The Cuzcanians are alive to the importance of communicating through their rivers to the Amazon and the Atlantic Ocean, and whenever the question shall be fairly brought before the Peruvian government, and it is ascertained that the United States intend to force open the way through the Brazils, I can count upon the assistance and influence of the whole department of Cuzco, and probably of the whole number of senators and deputies from the eastern provinces of the republic. Until some action shall be taken by the government of the United States, little can be done here.

"*However, en attendant*, it would be well if you were to attempt to organize a company for the navigation of the South American rivers *generally*, because, whilst we look at the Amazon, we should not lose sight of the La Plata. The country lying upon the head-waters of that river is better populated than that on the confluence of the Amazon, and, from all I can learn, the commerce with Paraguay alone would amply repay the outlay necessary to establish a steam company for the waters of the La Plata. Possibly, if steamers were actually plying upon the Paraguay and Parana, the Brazilian government might be better disposed towards us, and the question of Amazonian navigation be amicably settled. You may rest assured that if the United States do not move shortly in the matter, some other nation will.

"Even the Bolivians themselves are beginning to wake up to the importance of opening a communication with the Atlantic. The subject is touched upon in the enclosed articles from the 'Commercio,' published in this city. The Bahia Negra is not put down on the map I have, nor are Guturriz, the lake Izozos, the river Otuquis, nor the Lativegnique; but it appears to me that a better or more direct route to the Paraguay from Chuquisaca (Sucre) would be down the Pilcomayo, which passes within a few leagues of the town. I am not aware

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whether that river is navigable, nor whether the country it flows through is at all productive. I presume not, as it traverses the Gran Chaco desert.

"I think that the energies and influence of all the friends of South American internal navigation and colonization should be directed towards forming a company with a large capital, and to obtain the aid and support of the Congress of the United States. I know how difficult an undertaking it is to wring an appropriation out of our national legislature for any purpose; but if the subject could be fairly brought before it, and some of the leading senators and representatives could be excited to take a patriotic interest in it, perhaps something might be done.

"We must, on our side, do all we can, and by dint of perseverance may succeed at last in accomplishing our object. Should we do so, it will be a proud satisfaction to ourselves, though the public may, and probably will, leave us to exclaim: '*Hos ego versiculos feci, tulit alter honores.*'

"I shall continue working on, and writing to you whenever I have anything of the least interest to communicate."

We think that from this showing we are entitled to say that commerce up and down the Amazon now with Bolivia is not an abstraction.

Just as we are concluding this chapter, we receive a communication from South America, stating that in all probability Bolivia will make, in the month of December, 1852, Exaltacion, on the Madeira, and Reyes, on the Beni—both belonging to the Amazonian water-shed and to the tributaries of the Madeira—*free ports to the commerce of the world;* and that the sum of $10,000 will be offered as a reward to the first steamer that shall arrive at either one of these places.

The results of Lieutenant Gibbon's exploration of these water-courses are, moreover, looked for, it is said, with exceeding interest by the Bolivians.

About one-half of Bolivia, two-thirds of Peru, three-fourths of Ecuador, and one-half of New-Granada are drained by the Amazon and its tributaries. For the want of steamboat navigation on these water-courses, the trade of all these parts of those countries goes west by caravans of mules to the Pacific. There. it is shipped, and, after doubling Cape Horn and sailing eight or ten thousand miles, it is then only off the mouth of the Amazon, on its way to the United States or Europe; whereas, if the navigation of the Amazon were free to these countries, the steamers on that river would land their produce at the mouth of the Amazon, for what it costs to convey it across the Andes on mules to the Pacific.

A question, therefore, of the greatest importance to these republics is the free navigation of that river. The introduction of the steamboat upon their tributaries of it would be followed by the immigrant up the Amazon, who would soon make a perfect garden-spot of the splendid provinces that are on its banks.

The distance between the sources of the Amazon, in Peru, and her Pacific coast is, at the nearest point, not more than sixty or seventy miles.

The province of Caxamarca, which is upon the Amazonian water-shed in Peru, has a population of 70,000. It is said to be the healthiest part of the world. In 1792 (according to M. Martin) there were eight persons in it whose respective ages were 114, 117, 121, 131, 132, 141, and 147; and one person died there at the age of 144 years, seven months, and five days, leaving 800 living descendants. The city of Caxamarca is in 7° south.

There are upon this water-shed, in Bolivia, the cities of Chuquisaca, Cochabamba, and Santa Cruz; in Peru, the famous city of Cuzco, Huancavelica, (celebrated for the richest quicksilver mines in the world,) Tarma, Caxamarca, and Moyabamba; and in Ecuador, the celebrated city of Quito, besides numerous other towns, villages, and hamlets in them all.

The revolution which the discovery of the passage around the Cape of Good Hope made in the trade of the East was not greater than that which the free navigation of the Amazon would make in the trade in these four republics. It would make of them new countries and a new people. Total population at present estimated between seven and eight millions.

In May, 1851, Lieut. Herndon set out from Lima, on his way to explore the Amazon; and it is through him that we derive most of the following information concerning the Peruvian water-shed of that river.

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We therefore introduce the reader upon that water-shed by an extract from his journal, which he has kindly permitted us to make. Standing in view of three beautiful lakes—one of them, Morococha, or "Painted Lake," being that from which the head waters of the Amazon flow—he remarks:

"Though not yet sixty miles from the sea, we had crossed the great 'divide' which separates the waters of the Pacific from the waters of the Atlantic. The last steps of our mules had made a striking change in our geographical relations—so suddenly and so quickly had we been cut off from all connection with the Pacific, and placed upon waters that rippled and sparkled joyously as they danced by our feet on their way to join the glad waves of the dark blue ocean that washes the shores of our own dear land. They whispered to me of home, and my heart went along with them. I thought of Maury, with his researches concerning the currents of the sea; and recollecting the close physical connection pointed out by him as existing between these the waters of the Amazon and those of our own majestic Mississippi, I musingly dropped a bit of green moss, plucked from the hill-side, upon the bosom of the placid Morococha, and as it floated along I followed it, in imagination, down through the luxurious climes, the beautiful skies, and enchanting scenery of the tropics, to the mouth of the great river that this little lake was feeding; thence across the Caribbean Sea, through the Yucatan pass into the Gulf of Mexico; thence along the gulf stream, and so out upon the ocean off the shores of our own 'land of flowers.' Here I fancied it might have met with silent little messengers cast by the hands of sympathizing friends and countrymen high up on the head-waters of the Mississippi, or away in the Far West, upon the distant fountains of the Missouri.

"It was indeed but a bit of moss that was floating upon the water while I mused. But fancy, awakened and stimulated by surrounding circumstances, had already converted it into a skiff manned by fairies, and bound upon a mission of high import, bearing messages of peace and good-will, and telling of commerce and navigation, of settlement and civilization, of religious and political liberty, from the 'King of Rivers' to the 'Father of Waters,' and possibly meeting in the Florida Pass, and speaking through a trumpet louder than the tempest, with sprites sent down by the naiads of Lake Itaska with greetings to Morococha.

"I was now for the first time fairly in the field of my operations.

"I had been sent to explore the valley of the Amazon, to sound its streams, and to report as to their navigability. I was commanded to examine its fields, its forests, and its rivers, that I might guage their capabilities, active and dormant, for trade and commerce with the states of Christendom, and make known to the spirit and enterprise of the age the resources which lie in concealment there, waiting for the touch of civilization and the breath of the steam-engine to give them animation, life, and palpable existence.

"Before us lay this immense field, dressed in the robes of everlasting summer, and embracing an area of thousands upon thousands of square miles, on which the foot-fall of civilized man had never been heard. Behind us towered, in forbidding grandeur, the crests and peaked summits of the Andes, clad in the garb of eternal winter.

"The contrast was striking and the field inviting. But who were the labourers? Gibbon and I. We were all. The rest were not even gleaners. But it was well. The expedition had been planned and arranged at home with admirable judgment and consummate sagacity; for had it been on a grand scale, commensurate with its importance, or even larger than it was, it would have broken down with its own weight.

"Though the waters where I stood were bound on their way to meet the streams of our northern hemisphere, and to bring, for all the practical purposes of commerce and navigation, the mouth of the Amazon and the mouth of the Mississippi into one, and place it before our own doors; yet from the head of navigation on one stream to the head of navigation on the other, the distance to be sailed could not be less than ten thousand miles.

"Vast, many, and great, doubtless, are the varieties of climates, soils, and productions within such a range. The importance to the world of settlement, cultivation and commerce in the valley of the Amazon cannot be over-estimated. With the climates of India, and of all the

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habitable portions of the earth, piled one above the other in quick succession, tillage and good husbandry here would transfer the productions of the East to this magnificent river-basin, and place them within a few days' easy sail of Europe and the United States.

"Only a few miles back we had first entered the famous mining districts of Peru. A large portion of the silver which constitutes the circulation of the world, was dug from the range of mountains upon which we were standing, and most of it came from that slope of them which is drained off into the Amazon. Is it possible for commerce and navigation up and down this majestic water-course and its beautiful tributaries, to turn back this stream of silver from its western course to the Pacific, and conduct it with steamers, down the Amazon, to the United States, there to balance the stream of gold with which we are likely to be flooded from California and Australia.

"Questions which I could not answer, and reflections which I could not keep back, crowded upon me. Oppressed with their weight and the magnitude of the task before me, I turned slowly and sadly away, secretly lamenting my own want of ability for this great undertaking, and sincerely regretting that the duty before me had not been assigned to abler and better hands."

The Amazon, in Peru, is called the Maranon. It takes its rise in about 11 deg. south, and flows N. N. W. for about five hundred miles; thence turning east, and constituting, according to the maps, (but the maps are wrong,) the boundary line between Peru and Ecuador for about eight hundred miles by its windings.—Crossing in Peru the head-waters of the main stream, Lieut. Herndon reached the banks of the Huallaga, a noble tributary, and embarked upon it at Tinga-Maria. He descended it to its junction with the main stream, and thence to the mouth of the latter by a river navigation of not less than three thousand five hundred miles.

At Tarapoto he fell in with a clever New-England blacksmith, who had been in that country for many years, and from whose valuable notes concerning the commercial resources of the places visited by him, we derive the following:

Tarapoto, situated on the left bank of the Huallaga, six leagues above Chasuta, the head of uninterrupted navigation from the sea, is one hundred and thirty leagues from the city of Huanuco, and twenty-four from Moyabamba. Climate very healthy, and free from all annoying insects.

It is situated on a beautiful plain of from twenty to twenty-five leagues in circumference, which is intersected by many rivulets. The soil is fertile, producing in great abundance cotton, coffee, sugar, indigo, and cocoa, as well as everything else to which the climate is adapted. Here the plantain continues, without any other care than that required to remove the noxious weeds, to produce in full vigor from fifty to sixty years. Cotton gives a crop in six months from the seed; rice in five months; and indigo grows wild. Neat cattle and sheep thrive here and multiply most rapidly. Population of the town and its two ports in 1848, 5,350; annual births about 235; deaths, 40. Principal branch of industry, cotton cloth, of which they manufacture between thirty-five and forty thousand yards. It is made by hand, and one yard of our common coarse cotton is worth there two of that.

The currency is white wax and this coarse cotton stuff of the country, which in Chachapoyas is worth twelve cents the yard.

One pound of white wax is worth four yards of cotton; a good-sized bull one hundred yards; a well-grown fat hog, sixty yards; a big sheep, twelve yards; twenty-five pounds of coffee, six yards; twenty-five gallons of rum, twelve yards; a laying hen, four ounces of wax; a chicken, two ounces; twenty-five pounds of rice in the husk, a half pound of wax; twenty-five pounds of corn, two ounces; twenty-five pounds beans, four ounces; a basket of yucas, weighing from fifty to sixty pounds, two ounces; twenty-five pounds seed cotton, eight ounces; a bunch of plantains, weighing from forty to fifty pounds, *three* needles. Storax, cinnamon, milk of trees, gums, and other products of the forests have no fixed value; but they may be had in quantity from the Indians at merely nominal prices.

The land transportation from Tarapoto to Moyabamba, with its population of 15,000, is done on the backs of Indians. Seventy-five pounds make a load, and the freight is six yards of cotton, valued at three yards of our common "fi'penny bit" stuff.

The pay of a common labourer is four

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ounces of wax a day and found, "with *chicha* at discretion."

This is the most important town in the province of Mainas, on account of its proximity to navigable waters, and its connection with such a large extent of territory that is not liable to overflow.

From Tarapoto to Chasuta you pass the villages of Juan Guerra and Shapaya. Chasuta is at the head of uninterrupted navigation on the Huallaga. Lieutenant Herndon, coming down at low water, met between this place and the mouth of the Amazon with nowhere less than five feet of water. The high-water mark is forty feet above the stage in which the river was when he was there. From Chasuta to the mouth of the Amazon the distance by water is upwards of 3,000 miles; and for half the year the Pennsylvania, seventy-four, would find water enough to reach that village from the sea.

Population of Chasuta 1,031; distance to Tarapoto by land six leagues; cost of transportation, one pound of wax the Indian load, one pound of wax being equivalent to four yards of cotton.—Cows, sheep, horses and hogs thrive well. Productions those of Tarapoto.

Yunimaguas, twenty-four leagues below Chasuta; population 319; country fertile. A good road can be cut from this place almost *in a straight line* to Moyabamba, distance thirty leagues.

Santa Cruz is thirty-five leagues below Chasuta. Here white wax is worth one and a third yards cotton, and five pounds wax are sold for one white-handled knife. Population 300.

Chamicuros, thirty-nine leagues below Chasuta, with a population of 331. Valuable resins and gums abound in the woods.

Laguna, forty-four leagues below Chasuta, and four above the mouth of the Huallaga, has a population of 742, and a fertile soil.

Urarinas, on the Amazon, five leagues below the mouth of the Huallaga—population forty-three. This is an important place on account of the immense quantities in its vicinity of the tree which produces the gum-copal.

Passing by the villages of Paranari and San Regis, we come to Nauta, the capital of the district. It is situated on the right bank of the Amazon, forty-six leagues below the mouth of the Huallaga, and ninety-four below the head of uninterrupted navigation on that river.

It is to this place that Brazil, by treaty with Peru, has just contracted for a line of steamers, under the Brazilian flag, from Para, at the mouth of the Amazon. This line is to have a monopoly of steamboat navigation on the Amazon for thirty years, with a bonus of 100,000 per annum for the first fifteen.

It therefore becomes a place of importance; and, as I shall have occasion to allude to it again in connection with this steamboat line, under the Brazilian flag, we will here take no more notice of it.

Nauta is also only half a league above the mouth of the Ucayali, another tributary of the Amazon, and larger than the Huallaga—population 810.

Here one yard of English or American cotton is worth two and two-thirds yards of the cotton cloth of the country; and thirty-four pounds of sarsaparilla are given for eight yards of the latter; a full-grown hen is worth six needles; a chicken three; and fifty or sixty pounds of yucas six. A Portuguese merchant has established a house here.

Amaguas, seven miles below Nauta, is an important point, (though at present it has but 240 inhabitants,) on account of its great extent of fertile lands.

Passing Amaguas with its 240 inhabitants, Iquitos with its 127, and Arau with its 80, we arrive, twenty-seven leagues below the mouth of the Ucayali, which comes from the south, at the mouth of the Rio Napo, a tributary from Ecuador. There is here a settlement consisting of one family of Mitos Indians and one fugitive slave from Brazil—total thirty-one.

This river is two hundred yards broad at its mouth, and is navigable for three hundred miles. It is rich in gold; its banks are inhabited by hostile tribes of Indians, and covered with sarsaparilla and other valuable products of the forests. These Indians make the finest and most beautiful hammocks that are found in the Pampa del Sacramento; price of a hammock two yards of cotton. The trade in poisons makes this an important place.

Pebas is thirteen leagues below the mouth of the Napo; has a population of 387, and a fine country round about.—Its productions are white and black wax,

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sarsaparilla, vanilla, poisons, storax, "chambira," hammocks, pitch, copal, incense, India rubber, milk of the cow-tree, and many curiosities, which the Indians, who, though wild and savage, are friendly to the white man, usually bring in exchange for beads, trinkets, &c., White wax is worth two yards of cotton; black, one and a half; thirty-four pounds sarsaparilla, twenty-four yards; hammock, two yards; a little pot of poison, four yards; one pound vanilla, eight yards.

Thence to Loreto, the frontier town of Peru, we have five small villages. Loreto is 160 leagues below the head of uninterrupted navigation of the Huallaga: population, 122. In this village you find a preparation from the wild yuca, which is very palatable, wholesome, and nutricious. It is a good substitute for bread.

Sarayacu, situated on the right bank of the Ucayali, 300 miles above its junction with the Amazon, has a population of 1,270.

This is an important point in the midst of a fertile region. Eight or ten miles above this town the Ucayali receives the Ahuaytia, which takes its rise almost on the banks of the Huallaga. A few miles up this tributary bring you to a great sarsaparilla country. This drug costs here eight yards of the cotton cloth of the country the one hundred pounds; which one hundred pounds are worth $25 in Para, and from $40 to $60 in Europe, according to the markets. These eight yards of cotton for the one hundred pounds of sarsaparilla, according to the statement of this clever blacksmith, are worth four yards only of our coarse cotton.

Let us, therefore, for the sake of illustration, trace this trade through its entire course.

The American or English peddler to the Amazon—for trader he is not—buys in New-York or Liverpool, as the case may be, four yards of cotton, for which he pays twenty-five cents. He ships it thence around Cape Horn to Callao.—Here it pays duty at the Peruvian custom-house, and is sent thence to Lima by mule. By this time, what with freight, transportation, and commissions, it has cost the purchaser fifty cents. It is then packed on mules, carried across the Andes, and in about twelve months from the time of its leaving New-York or Liverpool it arrives at the mouth of the Ucayali, where it is sent up by boat, which occupies three hundred working hours in going up three hundred miles to Sarayacu and the sarsaparilla country. Here this piece of four yards is exchanged in barter, according to Hacket, the New-England mechanic, from whom we have been quoting, for one hundred pounds of that drug. A shipment of the return cargo is then made in the rude river raft of the country, and this one hundred pounds of sarsaparilla, bought with four yards of "fi'-penny-bit" cotton, when it reaches the Amazon, is worth $9 in Nauta, $10.50 in Tabatinga, $25 at Para, and $50 at New-York or Liverpool. The voyage has been a long and a tedious and a roundabout one, but the profits are enormous.

Now, if Peru and Brazil, instead of forcing commerce with their interior provinces to go around "Robin Hood's barn" to get there, would open ports of entry to all nations and permit them to use the navigation of the Amazon, the citizens and subjects of Peru and Brazil, instead of getting four yards of cotton for their one hundred pounds of sarsaparilla, would get three or four hundred yards for it.

It would be difficult to quote any example more strikingly illustrative of the advantages to Peru of that "policy of commerce" which calls for the establishments of ports of entry at the head of navigation on the Maranon, as the main trunk of the Amazon is here called; at Chasuta, the head of navigation on the Huallaga; at the head of navigation on the Ucayali; and at Nautau, which is at the junction of this last with the Amazon.

So Ecuador might establish ports of entry on her side of the Amazon, at Borja, if the navigation be uninterrupted that far, and if Borja belong to her; and at the head of navigation at each one of her Amazonian tributaries, as the Pastaza, the Napo, the Putomayo, and the Japura; though the head of navigation of the last is perhaps in New Granada.

Now, if one of these republics should declare such places free ports to all the world, or ports of entry to the commerce of all nations at peace with her, surely Brazil would not in this enlightened day, if an American or an Englishman should wish to wear his own flag and go up in his own bottom under it on a trading voy-

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age to those ports—surely, we say, Brazil would not at this day attempt to play the part of Japan, and hinder those vessels from passing by her doors to other parts of the world.

The Pastaza, we are informed on the authority of our old friend, Gen. Villamil, the Secretary of State of Ecuador, is navigable nearly up to Quito; and, it is well known that the sands of most of those streams are auriferous.

Tabantinga is the frontier post of Brazil on the Amazon. Thence ascending, we have an uninterrupted navigation along the main trunk of the Amazon, which here courses through the northern parts of Peru, and not far from the southern boundary of Ecuador, for the distance of 500 or 600 miles. Thus a steamboat may reach the foot of the Andes.

Lieut. Herndon entered the Amazon four hundred and sixty miles above the Brazilian boundary, and he thus describes the river there:

"The Amazon, where it receives the Huallaga, is five hundred yards broad. The march of this great river in its silent grandeur was sublime; but, in the untamed might of its turbid waters, as they cut away its banks, tore down the gigantic denizens of the forests and built up islands, it was awful. It rolled through the wilderness with a stately and solemn air; its waters looked angry, sullen, and relentless, and the whole scene, as the noise of the falling trees came booming at distant intervals across the forest, awoke emotions of awe and dread, such as are caused by the funeral solemnities, the minute-gun, the howl of the wind, and the angry tossings of the waves, when all hands are called 'to bury the dead' in a troubled sea.

"Though the river was not at its full, it reminded me of our Mississippi at its topmost floods. The waters are quite as muddy and quite as turbid, but the Amazon lacked the charm and the fascination which the plantation upon the bank, the city upon the bluff, and the steamboat upon the water, lend to its fellow of the north; nevertheless, I felt pleasure at its sight. I had already traveled seven hundred miles by water, and fancied that this powerful stream would soon carry me to the ocean. But the water travel was comparatively just begun; many a weary month was to elapse ere I should again look upon the familiar face of the sea, and many a time, when worn and wearied with the canoe life, did I exclaim, 'This river seems interminable.'

"Its capacities for trade and commerce are inconceivably great. Its industrial future is the most dazzling; and to the touch of steam, settlement, and cultivation, this rolling stream and its magnificent water-shed would start up into a display of industrial results that would make the valley of the Amazon one of the most enchanting regions on the face of the earth."

"From its mountains you may dig silver, iron, coal, copper, quicksilver, zinc, and tin; from the sands of its tributaries you may wash gold, diamonds, and precious stones; from its forests you may gather drugs of virtues the most rare, spices of aroma the most exquisite. gums and resins of the most useful properties, dyes of hues the most brilliant, with cabinet and building woods of the finest polish and most enduring texture. Its climate is an everlasting summer, and its harvest perennial."

ART. IV.—CONNECTION OF THE ATLANTIC WITH THE GULF—INTERESTS OF ALABAMA.

MONTGOMERY AND PENSACOLA RAIL-ROAD.

FEW subjects are more interesting than to trace the developments of different sections of the country when connected by means of rail-roads, and the other various systems of internal communications. The commercial independence of the South has become no longer problematical. We possess the finest rivers, the richest soil, the best harbors, and the most valuable agricultural productions, not only of the Union, but of the whole world. It has been aptly said that "*Cotton is King*," since every thing of commercial importance depends upon it in the way of exchange. The cotton planter has, until very recently, conti

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nued blind to his own interests, by depending upon expensive, uncertain, and circuitous routes in the transportation of his productions to either domestic or foreign markets. "*Direct trade*" is the natural channel of communication between nations, and no fact is of more importance for the cotton planter to understand than this simple axiom.—The intervention of third parties, the rates of commission, insurance, lighterage, steamboat transportation, wharfage, drayage, and various other expenses levied upon a bale of cotton before it can be shipped in a safe vessel to a foreign market, has rendered the ports of New-Orleans and Mobile a dread to the majority of planters of Alabama and Mississippi.

To promote the mercantile and agricultural prosperity of central Alabama, a most important rail-road was undertaken, a few years since, to connect Montgomery with the city of Pensacola. The causes that led to a suspension of this road are too well known to the citizens of these cities, to render any explanation at this time necessary; suffice it to say, it was simply owing to the monetary revulsion of 1836 and 1838, that paralyzed the prosperity of the entire country, and which rendered abortive the various attempts undertaken at that time, to open the avenues of trade with interior sections of the country.

The Montgomery and Pensacola rail-road has now assumed an importance its most sanguine and earliest advocates in no way anticipated. It will be the object of this communication to point out, as briefly as possible, the most prominent inducements that are now presented to the citizens of Montgomery and Pensacola, in favour of an immediate construction of this road.

1st.—The certain, cheap, and expeditious facilities of communicating with a commercial harbor of the first class; and the consequent concentration of mercantile and agricultural trade at Montgomery from the surrounding counties.

2nd.—The saving of time, in favor of this road, over all others, in connecting the northern cities with New-Orleans, Texas, Chagres, the Tehuantepec route, on to the bay of San Francisco.

3rd.—The advantages this road possesses over the Savannah and Brunswick routes now in progress, to connect the Atlantic with the Gulf of Mexico, at the Bay of Pensacola.

4th.—The superiority of the harbor of Pensacola over all others on the Gulf of Mexico; and its national defenses.

5th.—The probable expense of construction, connected with steamboats to New-Orleans, and the income derived.

There is no interior town that we know of in the State of Alabama, in a more enviable position than Montgomery—possessing a large, thriving and energetic population—free from debt, and having a vast extent of rich agricultural country dependent upon her trade, by means of rail and plank roads that are being built, and all converging towards her as a common centre. It is not, therefore, surprising that the city of Pensacola should feel desirous to connect and afford Montgomery that which she most requires, to wit, a safe and magnificent harbor, to increase her commercial and internal prosperity. Increase the facilities of trade, and you promote the opportunities for wealth, and the consequent influx of population. It has become an established fact that rail-roads increase the mercantile prosperity of interior towns, and enables merchants to establish wholesale stores at central points, thereby affording facilities for the capital of the surrounding country to be spent in its own vicinity, rather than seek a more remote market at the hazard of a tedious and expensive journey, which is a serious consideration with merchants, mechanics, and planters of small means. The history of all the towns along the Albany and Buffalo Rail-road—Schenectady, Utica, Rome, Syracuse and Rochester, that now contain populations averaging 10 or 20,000 inhabitants, are all corroborative of this fact. Look, also, at Chicago, built upon the low slash prairie of northeastern Illinois; ten years ago she could not number 5000 inhabitants; she now boasts of 40,000, with 2000 miles of rail-road converging upon her. Such is the result of well-directed individual enterprise, that could be illustrated by a hundred different examples.

It is well known that the business of Montgomery is perplexed, and brought to a pause several months in the course of the year, by the shallowness of the Alabama River; and this frequently occurs in the most busy periods, when the

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travelling community is most anxious either to go, or return from the northern cities. This annoyance compels thousands to take the more tedious route of the Mississippi River, who would otherwise select the more agreeable and expeditious way through Montgomery, thence on to Wilmington, Charleston, or Savannah. The stockholders of the Montgomery and West Point Rail-road are losing millions from this cause; and I see no way of avoiding the loss but by lending their aid and influence towards the construction of the Pensacola and Montgomery Rail-road. It is hardly possible to arrive at a correct data as to the number of passengers that would pass over the route, in the event of its connection with the Alabama, Georgia and South Carolina Rail-roads at Montgomery. Especially, after the Chagres and Tehuantepec Rail-roads are completed, and connections established by them with some point on the gulf coast, being the terminus of the long chain of roads leading to the northern cities. It may be safely relied upon, however, that 200 is a small daily average of passengers, since 100 is the present number passing through Montgomery, notwithstanding all obstacles by the river, and rail-roads not yet completed.

The cotton trade is well worthy the consideration of the citizens of Montgomery, and a strict inquiry should be made as to the probable increase of this important branch of business in the event of this road being constructed. Whether the obstacles to be encountered upon the river—heavy steamboat freight, insurance, and the various expenses incidental, at Mobile—to wit, commissions, drayage, wharfage, lighterage, are not sufficient to draw off a vast amount of the cotton from the river, to be repacked at Montgomery, and thence forwarded to Pensacola, as opportunities present for shipment; thereby saving all those minor expenses which, taken together, detract so much from a bale of cotton in the Mobile market. It is not false prediction to say that cotton presses will line the river front of Montgomery, in less than a year after the construction of this road, and thus open a new avenue for employment and wealth to her enterprising citizens.

Secondly.—The saving of time in favor of this road, over all others, in connecting the northern cities, New-York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Washington, Norfolk, Charleston and Savannah, with New Orleans, Texas, Chagres, the Tehuantepec route, on to the Bay of San Francisco, is easily demonstrated by an examination of the maps, together with the numerous enterprises nearly completed to shorten the distance between these important commercial points.

Now, it is important for us to examine the merits of the Pensacola and Montgomery road, and to sustain by facts the priority it possesses over all other routes. The roads through Georgia and South Carolina are rapidly approaching their completion, and in a few months a direct communication will be had by rail-road, from the city of Montgomery to Wilmington, North Carolina, thence to Washington, Baltimore, Philadelphia, New-York, and, in fact, to every commercial city upon the Atlantic coast. Montgomery, then, is distinctly the terminating point of all the roads converging from the Atlantic coast to the Gulf of Mexico. Is it compatible with sound judgment, or, the progress of the times, that the property-holders of Montgomery should continue apathetic to their own permanent prosperity, and allow other cities to circumscribe and secure the elements of wealth, now within the control of her own citizens, by extending a rail-road to the Bay of Pensacola; and thus possessing the most magnificent harbor to be found either upon the Atlantic or the Gulf of Mexico?

The saving of time in making a journey from New-York to New-Orleans, is superior to any other route proposed, or yet undertaken. It can be made in the short space of "*Four Days,*" a rapidity greater than is even pretended to be claimed by the numerous improvements now in contemplation to connect the great commercial emporiums of the North and South. This time is calculated as follows; a good steamer can make the trip from New-Orleans to Pensacola in 16 hours, distance 200 miles; thence by rail-road to Montgomery, 160 miles in 8 hours:—

New-Orleans to Montgomery, via Pensacola	24 hours.
Montgomery to Wilmington, via S. Carolina R. R.	30 "
Wilmington to Washington, R. R.	30 "
Washington to New-York, R. R.	12 "
Equals 4 days	96 hours.

The most gigantic efforts are making

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by the capitalists of the country to establish an expeditious and economical route to San Francisco. The western members of Congress are urging the propriety of connecting the city of St. Louis with the Pacific coast, and demanding aid from Government to promote the enterprise. Missouri has already commenced, and has now under contract, a considerable portion of a rail-road, extending westward from St. Louis, designed to connect with the Bay of San Francisco. But an undertaking of such magnitude is well calculated to intimidate the most courageous, and we may confidently expect youth to decay into extreme old age, before a rail-road, 2300 miles in length, will be made over an uninhabited country, to connect the Mississippi with the Pacific Ocean. The antagonistical interests that Montgomery has to contend against are nearer home, almost upon her own threshold. The Mobile and Ohio Rail-road, via Selma, is progressing with an energy that guarantees a completion at an early period, and when connected with the Central Illinois road at Cairo, will be a continuous, though "*circuitous*" route to the eastern cities.

The following table of time and distance exemplifies the advantages of the Pensacola and Montgomery route to the Bay of San Francisco from the city of New-York. It has been prepared with care, and has been partly taken from a paper recently read before the Georgia Historical Society. Inquiries made by myself from experienced naval officers, pronounce the sailing distance and time correct.

New-York to Pensacola by R. R.	1,000 mls.,	72 hrs.	
Pensacola to Tehuantepec.....	900	"	72 "
Crossing the Isthmus	130	"	6 "
Isthmus to San Francisco	2,350	"	192 "
Equals 14 days, 6 hours.....			342 hrs.

This calculation is a reality, and sanctioned by the proposition recently made by Col. Sloo, to carry the United States Mail from New-York to San Francisco in *fourteen days*, provided Congress recognize the validity of the contract made by him with the Mexican authorities. The Senate are now debating whether the Garey, or the Sloo grant is entitled to the support of our government.

Thirdly.—"The advantages this road possesses over the Savannah and Pensacola route to connect the Atlantic with the Gulf of Mexico."

The citizens of Savannah deserve the greatest praise for their comprehensiveness and perseverance in endeavoring to promote the prosperity of their city, by connecting with every point calculated to increase her wealth and importance. Their efforts are not to be overlooked by the good people of Montgomery, lest they may suddenly find themselves circumscribed by the state of Georgia, and deprived of a convenient and safe harbor their own neglect has failed to secure.

The Savannah and Pensacola rail-road will be nearly four hundred miles in length, and will cost upwards of four million dollars; great as this sum may be, it will certainly be raised, and the road built, if Montgomery fails in duty towards herself.

In the event of Montgomery and Pensacola being connected, it is a matter of doubt whether the other road will be constructed, since everything will be accomplished in favor of Savannah, in the connection of the Central Georgia road with the Alabama roads leading to Montgomery, and this idea holds good in respect to Charleston.

The citizens of Pensacola are anxious to join with Montgomery; the misfortune is, they have not much capital to invest, and must, therefore, depend upon her richer neighbor to push the work successfully to completion. All that Pensacola can do, however, will be done to the full extent of her means. It would be well if a *Convention* was called at Montgomery, and some plan determined upon to undertake the work at once, and terminate the great struggle of sixteen years to connect the Atlantic with the Gulf of Mexico. The last Florida legislature granted a liberal charter to this road, and appointed the following gentlemen as commissioners, to open books and receive subscription for stock:

Walker Anderson, W. H. Chase, B. D. Wright, O. M. Avery, of Pensacola, Florida.

M. Bonclevare, John G. McLane, J. G. Robinson, A. J. Robinson, W. T. Sterns, C. Snowden, W. Ashley, Asa Johnson, T. A. McIvar, A. Russell and A. Fowler, Conecuh county, Alabama.

E. I. Pickins, L. A. Bowling, W. J. Sturty, James Dunklein, T. I. Burnett,

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H. L. Henderson, H. B. Taylor, B. W. Henderson, and J. P. McMullen, Butler county, Alabama.

C. Webb, A. J. Perry. G. Harrison, J. C. Swanson, and John Walker, Loundes county, Alabama.

C. Cromlin, J. E. Belser, E. Sandford Sayer, John Craigen, J. J. Scribles, B. S. Bibbs, H. W. Hilliard, E. Barnes, J. R. Dilliard, R. Wall, and G. Matthews, Montgomery county and city.

Any three of the abovenamed persons may open the books in such places as they may think proper, and keep them open until the whole capital stock is subscribed.

It is important, however, that these commissioners should be prompt in the exercise of their functions, otherwise the charter will be forfeited. It is a constitutional law of Florida, that all incorporated companies should be organized, and the work commenced within one year after the passage of the act, or it becomes null and void.

The general government has conceded the right of way through the public domain, in favor of this road, and continued efforts are being made by the Florida delegation to obtain alternate sections of land for six miles on each side of the line, similar to that passed in favor of the Central Illinois and Mobile roads.

Fourthly, "The superiority of the harbor of Pensacola over all others, on the Gulf of Mexico, and its national defenses."

The bay of Pensacola, as a harbor, has nothing to compare with it from the Chesapeake to the Rio Grande, or along Central and South America, until you arrive at Rio de Janeiro. It has anchorage for the most extensive commerce; and vessels are securely sheltered from the severest gales. The depth of water on the bar at the main entrance equals twenty-four feet, and has been stationary at this depth from time immemorial. As you ascend the bay, you find the same depth of water until you pass the city of Pensacola; distance from the bar about twelve miles. The largest class frigates and sloops-of-war frequently run up, and ride at easy anchorage off the town.

The most important defenses are: First, Fort McCrea, on the main land, as you enter the channel to cross the bar. Second, Fort Pickens, upon the opposite side. Third, Fort Barrancas, on a high cliff, half a mile from Fort Pickens, on the opposite shore. Also, an extensive navy-yard, with floating dock, basin, and rail-way, now ready for the construction and repair of naval and merchant vessels.

The health of the city and bay of Pensacola is proverbial, surrounded by open pine woods, and furnished with an abundant supply of healthy spring water. It is the favorite resort in midsummer of many families from Mobile and New-Orleans, who are attracted there by the facilities for salt-water bathing, and the remarkable salubrity of the climate during the unhealthy season.

Fifthly, "The probable expense of construction, connected with steamboats to New-Orleans, and the income derived."

We have endeavored, briefly as possible, to trace the various merits of this improvement, and the attention it is entitled to from the citizens of Montgomery. Another important feature is now to be considered, and, in fact, the one most essential to the success or destruction of the scheme. We allude to the probable expense and income of the road.

The act of incorporation is for two millions of dollars—an amount exceeding the sum necessary for the accomplishment of the enterprise, according to the following calculation:

160 miles rail-road, Montgomery to Pensacola	$1,600,000
Four first-class steamboats, to run daily between New-Orleans and Pensacola.	280,000
Equals expense	**$1,880,000**

INCOME.

200 daily passengers, 360 days, $8 00	$ 576,000
150,000 bales of cotton	150,000
Accumulated freight, merchandise, &c.	300,000
Mail contract	100,000
	1,126,000
Deduct expenses	326,000
Equals net profit of 23⅓ per ct.	**800,000**

This estimate, we are confident, will be found greatly within the assets of the road; my object is, however, not to exaggerate, or to indulge in an enthusiastic confidence as to the ultimate prosperity of the road. The experience of all great lines of communication between populous sections of the country, has been found to exceed in profit, rather

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than fall below the original estimate. It is sufficient to know, that the investment will be safe, and will yield an ample income upon the capital, and will bear comparison with any other improvement in the country.

We might continue the subject, and give a closer analytical detail. Our object has been to state the prominent facts, and leave them for an enlightened and wealthy community to use them for their own advantage.

ART V.—VALLEY OF THE OHIO.—ITS CONQUEST AND SETTLEMENT BY THE AMERICANS.

THE following extracts from a work about to be published are kindly sent to us by the author. Of the work itself, the Editors of the *Western Journal*, that popular monthly published at St. Louis, says:—

During Mr. Butler's preparation of the *History of the Commonwealth of Kentucky*, he gleaned, from conversation and correspondence with the old and leading men of the West, many incidents of historical importance, and also discovered among the archives of Virginia many documents pertaining to the history of the West, which could not with propriety be introduced into that work. Also the journals and private papers of distinguished pioneers in the West, which were placed in his hands, afforded a rich resource for an extensive history of its settlement by the Americans. His former work will, therefore, be but the nucleus around which the immense treasures of this work will be gathered.

Mr. Butler is peculiarly fortunate, in having enjoyed the advantages of deriving the most reliable and most multifarious data for the work he has undertaken. And in this respect he may be considered as the man most pre-eminently capable of giving accurate annals of the history he narrates. But he has a still stronger claim on the consideration of the public. Mr. Butler is a man of letters. Familiar with the literature of modern and ancient ages, he is also gifted with that comprehensive faculty which enables the philosophic historian to promote the civilization of the people, by indicating with liberal conservatism the laws of the progress of humanity:

The object of this work is to record the conquest and settlement of the Valley of the Ohio, by the united efforts of our English ancestors and our own countrymen. I mean to keep this story quite distinct from the French and Spanish enterprises, in or about this region. They have been already most ably narrated by Bancroft, in a manner at once to gratify the pride and to instruct the minds of his countrymen.*

My object embraces the western portion of the United States, if so transitory a name can still be applied to its great central region, watered by the Ohio River and its tributaries.

The Valley of the Ohio, without doubt, comprehends a larger quantity of fertile land, a more extensive and diffused interior navigation, together with a more salubrious climate, than any other portion of the temperate zones of the globe. It comprehends an area of 200,111† square miles, which is almost double that of France, more than twice that of Great Britain and Ireland, and nearly as much as the superficies of Germany. Its internal navigation is calculated by an indefatigable and skilful geographer,‡ at 5000 square miles, with access to a navigation on the great northern lakes of 82,750 square miles. The resources of the finest iron and lead, of coal and salt, are spread over this section of the United States, in a profusion unequaled in the world.

The valley extends from latitude 42° 29′ north, to latitude 34° 12′ north. In an eastern and western direction, this region of country stretches from the head of the Ohio River to its mouth, that is, from 1° to 12° west from Washington city, or from 78° 2′ west from Greenwich to 89° 2′.

The great debateable land, lying in this valley, which has constituted an ob-

* Bancroft's History of the United States.
† Darby's Gazetteer. ‡ Ibid.

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ject of the fiercest contention between the white and the red races, may well be confined to the country lying between the mouth and the head of the Ohio and its tributaries. Sometimes its history will lead the reader to the great northern lakes, and again to the Cumberland Mountains; but the actions which form the general tenor of the story were performed in the country bordering on its great central stream of the valley, so expressively named by the French discoverers, *La Belle Rivière.*

The settlement by the English and their descendants in this most beautiful and favored section of the United States, presents, among other aspects, one great and striking one, which has fastened itself upon the mind of the writer with great tenacity. It is that this great social work has been mainly a spontaneous, individual effort, without the aid, and scarcely with the countenance of government—often, indeed, against its threatening orders. The subjugation of the western country, as it has been limited, has been effected by a great cotemporaneous movement of society, at various detached points, in distant and separate parties, not knowing, much more not uniting, each other's efforts. It has been an Exodus without a Moses; and yet the pillar of fire by night, and the pillar of cloud by day, did not cease to direct the footsteps of our pioneer pilgrims.

The story is full of noble heroic enterprise, not always military, nor chiefly so; it is chequered with many mournful and tragic events; yet the self-denial, the fortitude and bravery, the wisdom and enterprise, displayed in their history, may well be studied by the descendants of the pioneers, and those who are now rioting in the rich fruits of these noble and manly virtues. Their history will ever form a record of daring and gallant exertions, over which admirers of such actions will rejoice, and whose study ought to give delight.

True, there has been no favorite chief at the head of a great expedition. No Cæsar, no Rollo, nor Hengist nor Horsa, headed these wide and scattered movements. It was too grand and gigantic a project for such means to effect. The wilderness of North America has been conquered, and reduced under the dominion of the axe, and the plow, by handfuls of men, sometimes individuals, each moving on his own footing, and by his own suggestions, or, in the popular idiom, "on his own hook."

The progress of the American Republic, in no one of its great sections, can well be said to have been a mere conquest, a military achievement only; although its history is very far from destitute of heroic renown. Still, it has not been entirely fanned into being by "conquest's crimson wing." It has mainly originated in more moral efforts. It is the first-born of freedom and commerce in America.

The early annals of the United States neither boast of, nor are stained with the cruel and bloody footsteps of a Cortez, or a Pizarro. They present heroes of another and higher order—soldiers of advancing civilization—pioneers of liberty and a great social reform. The moral grandeur of this movement throws the blood-stained triumphs of mere military conquest, for conquest's sake, far into the shade. It behooves Americans to elevate their conceptions to the intrinsic dignity of their country's efforts, to extend the civilization of the world, and to spread over it the blessings of liberty, religion and law.

Let our countrymen cease to worship the Moloch of mere military devastation and death; and may they realize the great debt which civilized life owes to the American pioneer!

It is the purpose of this work to pursue this train of thought, and rapidly to portray the efforts of the pioneers of Western America (and they were not always military ones) to reduce the fair and fertile region watered by the Ohio and its tributaries, to the dominion of civilized life—to convert the region in question from the rule of savage barbarity to that of enlightenment and humanity, of religion and freedom.

The scene shall be laid (as I have already intimated) on the waters of the Ohio river; and the time shall extend from the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, to the peace of Ghent, as ratified by the United States, in 1815.

The treaty first above mentioned, had left the region in question a great debatable land between the British and French crowns. Yet this smiling and most fertile section of country was, about the middle of the last century, the undisturbed forest home of the red man. True, there were scattered French

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villages of much earlier date, as Vincennes, Kaskaskia and Cahokia; but still the vast region stretching from the northwestern lakes to the Cumberland Mountains, and from the heads of the Ohio to the Mississippi, was essentially and indisputably the dominion of the North American savage.

Still, this vast tract of country was but dotted over with the towns of the war-like tribes, who wandered over, rather than inhabited it. Of this Indian race, the Confederacy, sometimes denominated the Five, and subsequently the Six Nations, were decidedly the most formidable. They occupied, at the time in question, the country from the lakes Ontario and Erie to the undefined territory of the Wyandots or Hurons, though their territorial claims extended to the Tennessee River. These latter were the most eastern tribe of the Miami, or, as they pronounced it, the Mi-a-mi-ah confederacy; as the Senecas were the most western of the Six Nations. "The Iroquois," or Six Nations, "were formerly confined, with the exception of the Tuscaroras, to the region south of the lakes Erie and Ontario and the peninsula east of Lake Huron."*

Loskiel tells us (Note, Part I., p. 130. III. Bancroft, p. 239, Boston, 1841,) that the Delawares, as they were called by our countrymen, Loups by the French, and Lenni Lenape, or Original Men, by themselves, were the parent stem of the Algonquin race of Indians. This tribe of Indians was seated round the Delaware Bay, in the present states of Pennsylvania, Delaware and Jersey, at the time of William Penn's visit to America. They seem to have been gradually driven from their ancient seats, during the earlier colonial times, to the country immediately west of the Alleghany Mountains. Beyond this tribe came the Shawanoes of the French writers, who also call them Chawanons; they were known to our countrymen as the fierce and warlike Shawnees. They were a tribe of most daring, ferocious and wayward character among all the vagrants of the forest. Fugitives from the victorious arms of the Five Nations, they fled about 1672 to the borders of the Carolinas and Florida. Returning thence, they were said, by Governor Harrison, to have been adopted by the Miami confederacy. (Gallatin and Drake's Life of Tecumseh. Pioneer History, 239.) It was of this tribe, so celebrated for their marauding invasions on the borders of Virginia and Pennsylvania, that Governor Dunmore said, in a proclamation of 1775, that "the most dreadful effects were felt." (See Virginia Gazette, 23d Jan., 1775.) They afterwards became as distinguished for their attacks upon the settlements in Kentucky and Ohio. They seem to have occupied the country watered by the Scioto. Descending the Ohio, the tribes of the Miami confederacy next presented themselves; they are sometimes called Twightwees. After them came the tribes of the Illinois confederacy, embracing the Kaskaskias and Peorias.

Such were the most important tribes located on the northern shores of the valley. Between them and the southern tribes lay the country since denominated Kentucky. This region, abounding most eminently in game and salt-licks, the favorite resort of wild animals, seems to have been reserved, by some tacit consent of the adjacent tribes, as a hunting or battle ground, as their wants or passions inclined them. Certain it is, that although at various points in the interior there were indications of different, perhaps superior races of natives having occupied the country, there were no permanent Indian towns located in Kentucky. They were unknown to our oldest hunters and travelers.

The tribes bordering the valley on the south consisted of the Cherokees, on the upper valley of the Tennessee River, as far as the Muscle Shoals; and the highlands of Carolina, Georgia and Alabama, and the Chickasas.† The latter tribe, ever distinguished by friendship to the white man, were situated on the lower waters of the Tennessee, and upon the Mississippi.

These were the aboriginal inhabitants of the valley of the Ohio, about the time of the irruption of the whites into this most desirable region. The numbers of this savage people have been variously estimated by the colonial writers, varying (as such estimates must in the absence of actual enumeration) from 5,000 to 6,000 warriors.‡

* Parkman's History of the Conspiracy of Pontiac, page 25. Boston, 1851. A work of unrivaled excellence, thoroughness, beauty and fidelity, on the colonial wars of North America.

† III Bancroft p. 246. Boston, 1841.

‡ Col. Croghan's Journal. Butler's History of Kentucky. Appendix and Pioneer History, p. 68, Cincinnati, 1848.

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This estimate would, at the common allowance of one fifth for warriors, make the Indian population of this portion of the western country here indicated, amount to 25,000, or 30,000 souls.

Nor does this calculation differ proportionately from that of Bancroft, adopted for the whole country of North America, east of the Mississippi, at the time of the discovery of British America. Their diminution, he thinks, exaggerated: "they have been exiled, not exterminated." Indeed, the testimony of all the missionaries and hunters shows the existence of frightful solitudes in the Indian country. They seem indispensable to furnish the game which supports a savage and hunter state of society. Dr. Franklin calculated that a mile square was necessary to support every individual in a savage state of society; while 50,000 acres are estimated by another necessary to support an individual in the hunter state.

But the tribes which were scattered over the western country of the United States, at the first visit of our countrymen, were much more formidable by their arts of war, than their mere numbers might indicate. Their ferocious customs of warfare are mournfully impressed on the traditions of the early immigrants to the Indian wilderness—the great battle-ground between the white and the red man. Acknowledging no object in their hostilities, superior to the destruction of their enemies and everything connected with them, in the most savage manner, there was no exemption from the horrors of war, for the helpless female, or children still more helpless. Tenderness and smiling innocence, whose appeals are paramount to all others in the breast of a civilized warrior, were utterly disregarded in the merciless barbarities of Indian war.—Every stratagem which the most perfect discipline of concealment could suggest, to effect the surprise of an enemy—every privation which the most enduring fortitude could bear, to effect the gratification of their bloody vengeance—every mode in which prisoners of war could be most cruelly tormented, were the constant attendants of our frontier warfare. Yet, it must not be concealed that these cruelties were not always confined to the Indians: they were too often and far too exactly retaliated by our own countrymen, who boasted of more civilized manners, and of a religion merciful and true. But to creep up by night to a fort-gate, or a cabin-door, and shoot down the first comer that should venture forth, at the break of day—to fire the log-cabin over its sleeping inmates—to strike the tomahawk into the brains of the infant sleeping at its mother's breast—to burn the wretched victims of war, by slow consuming fires, after exhausting all the refinements of mutilation and torture, have been familiar atrocities in the hostilities which have raged between the aborigines and the white men.

To these horrors of their own native suggestion must be added the formidable assistance derived by the northwestern Indians from European arms, furnished them by foreign rivals for American dominion in their more recent contests with one another and with our own countrymen. This made them a much more formidable foe to the western pioneers than the natives proved to our forefathers, who had battled with them on the Atlantic border. These tribes were an insignificant enemy in comparison with the well-armed and often provisioned forces which defended the western country from the intrusion of the white man. They formed, in the opinion of our own most experienced military men, a corps of light troops, unexcelled in the world. They wanted neither roads nor baggage. The formidable character of these troops is established by the slaughter rather than defeat of the finest armies of Europe, and even of our own country. This signal superiority of the more modern Indians in war to their primitive ancestors, and in the northwestern region of our country more particularly, was, in no small degree, derived, as has been observed, from foreign assistance. Still, to the Indian must be freely allowed great personal bravery on his own system of tactics for saving native life, demanded by the slow course of population. Unexampled hardihood, indomitable perseverance and fortitude in pursuing the object of his craft, or his vengeance, to the direst extremity, are undeniable characteristics of the Indian race. Added to those qualities, their systematic aversion to work, on a principle of honor, and they would almost seem doomed to utter extermination, before the sure and solid progress of agricultural society. It is

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socially the contest of spirit with strength —genius with judgment. That the experiments under the benevolent policy of our own government on our western waters may prove the fallacy of this inference, must be the prayer of every good man.

These aids of foreign arms and provisions seem first to have been received by the Indians in the wars which took place between Canada and the British provinces. With these exceptions, and some traffic in peltries, the country west of the great mountain chain of the Alleghany was in its aboriginal condition as late as the middle of the last century.

This state of occupation and barbarian independence was not long permitted to continue, owing to the conflicting claims of France and England to this desirable region. Both these powers had peculiar claims to this great central region of North America. France certainly preceded Great Britain in exploring the northwestern country of North America. The missionaries of France had penetrated the far Northwest—the entrance to Lake Superior, Detroit, Michilimackinac; the waters of the Mississippi to their mouth had been explored by the French early in the sixteenth century. France had erected a fort at Detroit, Le Boeuf, Presque Isle, and at Venango; at Vincennes, on the Wabash, and Fort Chartres on the Mississippi. Still, the British government claimed these northwestern regions, or at least set up what has recently been termed a protectorate over them, by virtue of ancient conquests of these regions by the Six Nations, who became the fast friends of Great Britain; and acknowledged by treaty in 1701 a species of dependence upon her more nominal than real. The truth is, the covenants of treaties, beyond simple peace and war, are not likely to be well understood, or critically examined by a race of savages.

Presents, immediate gratification of wants, and promises for the future, are the most efficacious instruments of influence in negotiations with barbarians. Mere faith, independent of its immediate fruits, has but little influence on the minds of a people in a savage state of society. Yet the settlements of the British colonists were not only incomparably superior in population, but they were more immediately contiguous to the disputed country lying adjacent to the provinces of Pennsylvania and Virginia. And although, between the native proprietors of the soil and the European colonists of either France or England, this might be immaterial, not establishing any title against them, yet between the European rivals for dominion in America, it might have some reasonable weight. While the French were confined to the banks of the St. Lawrence, or had only explored, not settled the region on the Ohio River, the English had crossed the Blue Ridge, and were ready to climb the Alleghanies.

ART. VI.—AMERICAN STEAM MARINE.*

THE GREAT LINES OF SEA STEAMERS CONNECTING AMERICAN PORTS, AND THE OLD AND THE NEW WORLD.

THE power and influence of steam in the nineteenth century have furnished an inexhaustible theme for the speculations of the man of science, and opened an unlimited field to the enterprise of the merchant; while, to the world at large, its achievements have been a source of wonder. The invention of the mariner's compass, and the application of steam to the propelling of ships, have equally marked an extraordinary epoch in the history of ocean navigation. The

* There are several lines of sea steamers, of greater or less capacity, not included in the paper above, which we introduce in a note:

1. Charleston and Florida Steam Packets, leaving every Saturday; Charleston and Philadelphia steamship Osprey, 1,000 tons; Charleston and Havana steamship Isabella, semi-monthly, 1,000 tons; Charleston and Wilmington Steam-line; Charleston and Savannah steamers.

2. Savannah and Philadelphia steamers, etc.

3. New-Orleans and Mobile steamers—Florida, Oregon and California, daily; New-Orleans and Texas steamers—Louisiana, Mexico, Yacht, Meteor, etc.; New-Orleans, Vera Cruz, and Pacific Line, three times a month—steamships Albatross and Texas.

4. Liverpool and Philadelphia steamships Manchester and Glasgow, etc., etc.

This paper upon steamships was published in parts by Mr. Pust, in the "Journal of Commerce," and now, having been revised and corrected, is furnished as one article for the Review, by the author.

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latter, though of recent origin, is one of the most interesting and instructive of any event of the age. The writer of this paper purposes to present a few facts and statistics, in connection with this subject, derived from authentic sources; and to trace, particularly, the growth of that leviathan power, which, from a small barque timidly braving the perils of the sea, has increased to mammoth ships; and which, in its strides of communication between continents, has revolutionized the time of the ocean, and annihilated the space of distant coasts.

The incredulity which is ever opposed to the improvements which affect the destiny of the human race, and the advancement of the world in science, was not wanting in the application of steam to ocean navigation. As illustrative of this, it is instructive to trace the progress of this great marine, from the time that a distinguished member of the British Parliament declared, in presence of a corps of engineers, assembled before a committee of the House of Commons, that he would swallow the first steam engine that propelled a ship across the Atlantic, to the day that steamers of the largest class crossed in some nine days and seventeen hours!

With the forebodings of men of intelligence, steam ocean navigation, in its origin, like almost all other novelties, had equally to contend against the prejudices of men of science. Dr. Lardner, notwithstanding the contradiction which has recently been made in an English journal, expressed his opinion decidedly against the practicability of such an enterprise; and at a time when he was the great accredited authority of the steam engine in England. The writer of this paper remembers to have heard the same distinguished authority declare, in one of his lectures in this country, upon the same subject, an opinion adverse to the success of ships of the larger class navigating the ocean by steam. But these obstacles of prejudice and incredulity are but the repetition of the history of every new enterprise and invention, superseding old and established principles in science and in commerce; and so they will ever continue to exist, but in the undying faith and intrepid energy of those who create and establish them.

Without disparaging the enterprise of other nations, it is a source of national pride to Americans, that a vessel from the United States was the first to perform the novel feat of crossing the Atlantic by steam. Although this fact was very generally known, yet some conflicting statements attending the sailing of an English steamer soon after, contributed to involve the matter in controtroversy, until a final decision was given to the point by establishing it conclusively and satisfactorily from the files of the English journals. Col. John S. Cunningham, Commissioner to the World's Fair from Virginia, in a letter to the London *Times*, remarking upon some comments of that journal upon steam machinery on exhibition, in which it claimed that the Sirius, an English steamer, was the first which had crossed the Atlantic, quoted from its own files and "Lloyd's," the announcement of the arrival at Liverpool in June, 1819, of the American steamer Savannah, from Savannah, Georgia—the first which had performed the trip. The success of this experiment, though small in itself, yet the precursor of great results, is shared equally by the North and the South of the United States. The Savannah was built in New-York, and sailed from a Southern Atlantic port. She represented the skill of Northern ship-builders and the enterprise of Southern merchants. She was commanded by Captain Rodgers, of New-Bedford, Mass.

The Savannah, of 300 tons, commenced the rivalry of steam navigation between the United States and Great Britain upon the Atlantic Ocean.

Of the British steamers, which have succeeded the earlier and smaller enterprises of English companies, between the United States and Great Britain, by far the most successful and extensive line is *The British and North American Royal Mail Steamships*, between New-York and Liverpool and Boston. This company was established in 1838, by Mr. Cunard, in connection with Messrs. Burry and McIvor, under whose successful management it has grown to its present magnitude. The Britannia was the first ship of this line which crossed the Atlantic. She made the passage in the July of 1838. These steamers, very appropriately, are named after the four continents, and some of the most important countries of the world; as those of the American line are, with equal propriety, called after great oceans. They

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number, at this time, nine ships, of the following denomination:—

Arabia, 2,500; Asia, 2,200; Europa, 1,800; America, 1,800; Persia, 3,100; Africa, 2,200; Niagara, 1.800; Canada, 1,800; Cambria, 1,500. Aggregate tonnage of the Cunard line of steamers, 19,000.

Of these, the Cambria and Europa were built by Wood, of Greenock; their engines constructed by Napier of Glasgow. The America, Niagara, and Canada, were built by Steel, of Greenock; their engines constructed by Napier. The Asia, Africa, Arabia, are 2,200 and 2,500 respectively. These, the largest ships of this line, were also built by Steel; their machinery constructed by Napier. The Persia will be ready next summer. She is of iron, and, it is said, will be the largest steamer in the world. In addition to these, there are several other iron screw steamers announced as being in the process of construction for this company, viz.: the Alps, the Taurus, the Teneriffe, the Balbec, the Melita, the Etna and the Jura, varying from 1,000 to 2,000 tons. These will follow each other in rapid succession, so as to keep up the regular communication between Great Britain, New-York, and the Pacific.

This auxiliary fleet of steamers is intended to establish a regular weekly communication between New-York and Liverpool, instead of fortnightly, as at present. The Andes was built by Messrs. Wm. Denny and Brothers, of Dumbarton, and her engines supplied by Messrs. Fullock and Denny, of the same place.

The ships of this company, between Boston and Liverpool, stop at Halifax. Their proposed time of departure from Liverpool is on the Saturday of every week; and from the United States, the Wednesday of every week; from Liverpool for New-York, Saturday the 3rd of January; and for Boston, the alternate Saturday throughout the year; completing their transatlantic annual voyage, Saturday the 25th of December, 1852. For the same year, from Boston to Liverpool, the first departure was made Wednesday, the 7th of January, and the last from New-York, Wednesday the 29th of December — making fifty-two trips annually each way; and averaging two a fortnight, alternately, between Liverpool and the United States ports. From the date of its establishment to October, 1852, the aggregate number of trips made by this line across the Atlantic was three hundred and sixty-eight; or seven hundred and twenty in all, each way.

The New-York and Liverpool United States Mail Steamers.—The ships of this line comprise the following:—Atlantic, 3,000; Pacific, 3,000; Baltic, 3,000; Arctic, 3,000. Aggregate tonnage of the Collins steamers (amounting to four of the largest class in number), all on the line, 12,000.

These ships were built by contract, for government service, by William H. Brown and Jacob Bell. They are of corresponding dimensions, being 288 feet on deck, 46 feet in breadth of beam, 32½ feet depth of hold. The engines of the Atlantic and Arctic are from the "Novelty Works" of Messrs. Stillman and Allen, New York. Those of the Pacific and Baltic, from the "Allaire Works," Messrs. Secor and Braisted. They are all of the same description, being two side levers; those of the Baltic and Pacific, 96 inches cylinder, 10 feet stroke, 96–9; and those of the Artic and Atlantic 95–10, 95–9.

This line of United States Mail Steamers was established in 1850 by Edwd. K. Collins, Esq. The first of its ships that sailed from New-York to Liverpool was the Atlantic, 27th April, 1850. The Arctic, of this line, has made the quickest passage of the Atlantic steamers from New-York to Liverpool—accomplishing it in nine days and seventeen hours. At the session of the last Congress, an appropriation of 33,000 dollars a voyage was made for this line of ocean steamships, as an additional compensation for carrying the United States mail.

The predecessor of the Hon. Jno. P. Kennedy, in the Navy Department, on the 23d of March, 1852, submitted information to Congress relative to the steamships employed by the Government in transmitting the United States mails. It is contained in the executive document, No. 91; and embraces a general synopsis of the mail contracts and the terms upon which the respective companies are employed; also the time and money it would cost to convert these mail steamers into a war marine.

The proposed dates of sailing of these steamers is, from New-York, the alternate Saturday of each month; and from Liverpool the alternate Wednesday; reversing the days from each port of the

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sailing of the Cunard steamers. The branch of the latter line which connects with Boston and touches at Halifax, does not legitimately come under the head of the "Steam Marine of the Port of New-York;" but as they are so closely connected and identified with the same great enterprise, it was deemed appropriate to introduce them in this connection.

Without a classification which would seem to give them an order of apparent superiority, we will proceed to a consideration of the other Atlantic steamers:

The Ocean Steam Navigation Company comprises the United States Mail Steamship line between New-York, Southampton and Bremen, and consists of—

The Washington, 1,700; the Hermann, 1,700. Aggregate tonnage of the "Ocean Steam Navigation Company," of two ships of the first class, 3,400.

This company was established in 1847. These ships were built by Jacob A. Westervelt. The Washington was launched the 30th of January, 1847. Her dimensions are 224 feet on deck, 39 breadth of beam, 29 depth of hold. The Hermann was launched on the 30th of September, 1847, and is of the same dimensions, excepting the deck, which is five feet longer than that of the Washington. Their engines were constructed by Stillman, Allen & Co., and are two side levers of seventy-two inches cylinder and ten feet stroke.

The time of sailing of the ships of this line between each port is the Saturday of every month from New-York, and the Friday and the Wednesday of the same, from Bremen and Southampton. The ships of the Ocean Steam Navigation Company possess all the requisites, in construction, of the first class of ocean steamers. The owners of the line are the Messrs. Moller, Sands & Riera, New-York.

The New-York and Havre Steam Navigation Company consists of the United States mail steamers,—

The Franklin, 2,200; Humboldt, 2,200. Aggregate tonnage of the "New-York and Havre Steamship Company," of two ships of the first class, 4,400.

The steamers of this line run between New-York and Havre—stopping at Southampton both going and returning. They were built by Jacob A. Westervelt, New-York. The Franklin was launched the 31st of August, 1848, and is 263 feet on the deck, 52 in beam, 26 depth of hold. The Humboldt is 282 feet, 40, 27, and was launched the 5th of October, 1850. The engines of these steamers are from the Novelty Works, and are two side levers; the former of 93 inches of cylinder and 8 feet stroke, the latter 95 inches, 9 feet.

Their time of sailing is the Saturday of each month from New-York, and the Wednesday of the same from Havre; the corresponding days of the sailing of the Bremen line between New-York and Southampton, but not the same date. This company was established in 1848. Mortimer Livingston, Esq., New-York, is the agent.

The Glasgow and New-York Steamship Company is running its new steamship Glasgow, of 1962 tons and four hundred horse power. This company, establishing steam communication between New-York and Glasgow, is of recent origin. The Glasgow was built by Fox & McGregor, of Glasgow, and her engines constructed by the same. J. McSymon, Esq., is the agent of this company, New-York.

By this list, it will be perceived that the ocean steam navigation between New-York and the transatlantic ports comprises a steam marine of eighteen ships of the first class, ranging from 3,000 to 1,800 tons. This is under the management of five distinct companies, and forms a regular communication between New-York and five of the transatlantic ports, embracing the following aggregate number of ships of the different companies to the respective ports:

From New-York to Liverpool, embracing the Cunard and Collins lines, of nine and four steamers respectively, 13; from New-York to Southampton (including the steamers of the Havre line with the Bremen which stop at Southampton), 4; from New-York to Glasgow, 1. Actual number engaged, 18.

From this compendium it will be seen that the aggregate of tonnage embraced in the eighteen steamships engaged in the transatlantic steam marine of this port, ranging from 3,000 to 1,800 tons, and employed in the Atlantic trade of five distinct companies, is 40,762, as follows:—nine steamers Cunard line, 19,000; four steamers Collins line, 12,000; two steamers Ocean Steam Navigation Company, 3,400; two steamers New-York and Havre Company, 4,400;

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one steamer Glasgow and New-York Steamship Company, 1,962. Total steamers, 18. Total tons, 40,762.

The second division of our paper will comprise "*The Steam Communication between the Port of New-York and the Southern Ports of the United States and the West India Islands.*"

Observing the rule adopted in the preceding division of the paper, we will proceed to the consideration of the second and third parts of our subject without reference in their classification to the comparative superiority of one company over another.

Since the establishment of steam communication between the southern ports of the United States and New-York, the increase of that branch of our marine has been very rapid. It comprises the following companies:—

The New-York and Charleston United States Mail Steamship Line consists of the following steamers:—The Marion, 1,200; the Union, 1,500; the Southerner, 1,000. Adger, 1,500. Aggregate tonnage, 6,200.

This company was established in 1846, the Southerner making the first trip between New-York and Charleston. The Southerner and Marion were built by Messrs. Wm. H. Brown & J. Bell; the Adger and Union by Wm. H. Webb. The largest ships of this line, the Union and Adger, are of equal dimensions, being 215 feet in length, 34½ ft. beam, 21½ ft. hold. The Southerner, the smallest, is 190 feet in length, 30½ beam, 14 depth of hold. The engines of the two former are side levers of 60 inches cylinder, 10 ft. stroke, and 75 inches, 8 feet, and are from the Allaire Works. Those of the Southerner and Marion are of the same description, with 67 and 70 inches diameter of cylinder and 8 feet stroke of piston. They were constructed at the Novelty Works.

Messrs. Spofford & Tileston, New-York, are the agents for this line of steamships. They form a regular semi-monthly communication between New-York, Charleston, Savannah and Florida. Their days of sailing are the Wednesday and Saturday of every week.

The Steamers William Penn and Benjamin Franklin form a semi-monthly direct line between New-York and New Orleans. These steamers were built in Philadelphia, and launched in August, 1851. Their register is 1,000 tons each. The Franklin and Penn are propellers, with double engines of 350 horse power. They were built for the Philadelphia and Boston trade, but in May last were placed on the line between New-York and New-Orleans. The hulls of both steamers were built by Jno. Bireley & Son, of Philadelphia. The engines of the Benj. Franklin were constructed by J. P. Norris & Co., Philadelphia; those of the Wm. Penn by Reaney, Nafie & Co. Philadelphia. The agents in New-York are Messrs. E. Lincoln & Co. The aggregate tonnage of the two propellers of this company is 2,000.

The Steam Propellers City of Norfolk and City of Richmond form a line of communication between Charleston, Norfolk, Petersburgh, Richmond and New-York. This line was established in September, 1851. The Richmond was built by R. Loper, and the Norfolk by Bell & Brother, Baltimore. Their tonnage is 444 and 518 tons respectively. Their engines were constructed by Murray & Hazlehurst, Baltimore, That of the City of Richmond is 26 inch stroke and 26 bore. The Norfolk 30 inch stroke and 30 bore. Messrs. Mailler & Lord, New-York, are the agents of this line.

The New-York and Alabama Steamship Company.—The side-wheel steamship Black Warrior, of this line, sails between New-York, New-Orleans, Mobile and Havana. She was built by William Collyer, and launched the 1st of July, 1852. She is 246 feet in length, 37 beam, 18 deep. Her engine was constructed at the Allaire Works, and is one beam, 65 inch cylinder, 11 feet stroke. Her register is 1,900 tons. The agents of this company are Messrs. Livingston, Crocheron & Co., New-York. The tonnage of the New-York and Alabama Company, aggregate, 1,900 tons.

The New-York and Savannah Steamship Company.—The steamers Florida and Alabama, of this line, form a weekly communication between New-York and Savannah. They were built in 1850 and '51, respectively, by Wm. H. Webb, and are of equal dimensions and tonnage, viz.: 215 feet on deck, 35 in breadth of beam, and 12½ depth of hold, and 1300 tons register. The Augusta, a new ship of this line, of 1350 tons, has just been completed by the same builder, and is now getting her machinery constructed at the Novelty Works.

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She is 220 feet on deck, 35 feet beam, 21½ feet hold. The engines of the Florida and Alabama are of the same description, and are of equal diameter of cylinder and stroke of piston, viz.: one side lever, 75 inches cyl., 8 feet stroke. The Augusta's engine is one oscillating 85 inch cylinder, 8 feet stroke. These engines were all constructed at the Novelty Works of Messrs. Stillman and Allen. The agent of this company is Saml. A. Mitchell, Esq., New-York. The aggregate tonnage of these three steamers is 3,950.

The steamer Roanoke forms a weekly communication between New-York, Petersburg, Norfolk, and Richmond, Va. She was launched the 25th of June, 1851, and built by Jacob A. Westervelt & Son, New-York. She is 1050 tons register, 220 feet length on deck, 32 feet beam, 16 feet depth of hold. Her engines are two beam, 42 inches cylinder, 10 feet stroke, and were constructed at the Morgan Works.

The Jamestown, her hull now in the process of building at the same yard, and her engines in process of construction at the same works, will add another to this line, under the designation of the *New-York and Virginia Steamship Company*. The agents of the Company are Messrs. Ludlam and Pleasants, New-York. The aggregate tonnage of these two steamers is 2,100.

Of the American steamers sailing between New-York and the West Indies, one of the most important communications between the former port and Havana is established by the "United States Mail Steamship Company." The Crescent City, of this line, carries the United States mail; and by virtue of the law of Congress contracting for carrying the mails, the steamers of the United States Mail Company are commanded by officers of the United States navy. Of the steamers of this line plying between this port and New Orleans, embracing the alternate voyages of the Empire City, the Crescent City and the Cherokee, the aggregate tonnage is 4,800.

In this connection we should not omit to state, that the steamer Black Warrior, of the *New-York and Alabama Co.* is also a mail steamer, touching at Havana, and commanded by an officer of the navy.

From the foregoing estimate, we find that the number of steamers engaged in the southern trade is seventeen; and these plying between New-York and eight different ports, viz.: Charleston, Mobile, New-Orleans, Savannah, Florida, Richmond, Petersburgh, Norfolk. Their aggregate tonnage, employed in the steam marine of seven different companies, and varying from ships of 2,000 to propellers of 444 and 518 tons, is 21,912—as follows:

4 steamers—Marion, Union, Southerner, and Adger, of 12, 15, 10 and 1,500 tons, respectively, New-York and Charleston Steamship Company, 6,200; 2 propellers—Benj. Franklin and Wm Penn. (1000 each,) between New-York and New Orleans, 2,000: 2 propellers—City of Norfolk and Richmond, between Charleston, Norfolk, Petersburgh and Richmond, of 444 and 518 tons respectively, 962; 1—New-York and Alabama Steamship Company, Black Warrior, between New-York and New-Orleans, Mobile and Havana, 1,900; 3—New-York and Savannah Steamship Company, Florida, Alabama, and Augusta, of 1,300 and 1,350 tons, respectively, 3,950; 2—New-York and Virginia Steamship Company, the Roanoke and Jamestown, 1,050 respectively, 2,100; 3—United States Mail Steamship Company, the Cherokee, Empire and Crescent City, 1,300, 2,000 and 1,500, respectively, 4,800. Total number of ships employed, 17. Aggregate of tonnage employed, 21,912. A more thorough notice of the steamers of the United States Mail Steamship Company will be given in the division of this paper allotted to a consideration of the California steamship companies.

The Royal Mail Steamship Petrel is a new steamer of 800 tons, sailing between New-York, Bermuda and St. Thomas. The Petrel is announced as having been built expressly for a tropical climate.

The Steamship United States, of the "New-York and San Francisco Steamship Company," in her trips from New-York to Aspinwall, touches at Kingston, Jamaica; as well as steamers of the other companies plying between these ports.

In order to observe the uniformity of plan with which we set out in the beginning of this paper, we have embraced the preceding statement of the steam marine between New-York and

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the West Indies in the second division. A branch of this, as will be perceived, communicates with the southern ports of the United States as well as with the Isthmus of Panama. We now proceed to the consideration of that most extensive and interesting branch of our subject, the steam communication between the port of New-York and the Pacific.

When the Portuguese, at the close of the 15th century, succeeded in doubling the Cape of Good Hope, under the intrepid navigator, Vasco di Gama, and by opening this new communication with the East, was enabled to create a European power in India—the first dominion, until that event, which had been established by any people of Europe in Asia for 100 years before the Christian era—there was not created a greater epoch in the commercial history of the world, nor foreshadowed a mightier empire to be created in a new hemisphere by a new race, than was marked by the event, as the precursor in magnitude of consequences, of the first American steamship which doubled Cape Horn, after the discovery of gold in California.

In the contemplation of the commercial growth of nations, as well as in their political progress, comparisons are forced upon us; and the importance of these is in the truths which we are enabled to derive from the history of both. If, therefore, we indulge in a few observations on this branch of our subject which, at the first view, would appear to be foreign to it, we premise that the recognition of the principle we have remarked will be a sufficient justification for our course.

Following our principle of analogy in the commercial progress of nations, from the earliest history of the world, we are enabled to trace the instrumentality of that gigantic marine which, in its leviathan strides from age to age, has explored hitherto unknown continents, and united hitherto unknown people; and which has borne the banner of civilization into remote and savage countries. The progress in science, or the enterprise in commerce, which has enabled one nation to establish its power on one continent, has been achieved by conquest by another. As the Portuguese were the first Europeans of modern times to open a direct communication by the Cape of Good Hope with the East, the Phœnicians and Egyptians, the oldest navigators of antiquity, were the first people of the West to open a communication by sea with the Indies. What was accomplished by the incipient geographical advancement of the ancients with their limited knowledge of navigation, and what effected by the moderns, in their improvement in both, at the close of the 15th century, have been equally promoted by the application of a new power in the beginning of the nineteenth. The Americans, the youngest navigators of a new world, were the first to open a communication by steam with the Atlantic, and extend its triumphs to the North Pacific Ocean; and thus connect, in a more direct line of intercourse, the golden regions of the western world with the exhaustless treasures of the East. And as we contemplate the results of this gigantic growth of civilization and commerce in a semi-barbarous country on the Pacific coast of America, planted by the people of the New World, we are led to trace the progress of European civilization and power in the eastern hemisphere of the old. In this comparison, however, which is irresistibly forced upon us, in the consideration of this theme, we are led to indulge the belief, promoted by our national strength and excited by our national hopes, that the parallel may stop at that point which marks in blood the alternate conquest of one European nation over another in India, and commemorates it by the slaughter of her inhabitants. With the successful establishment of one European power in the East, came the rapid dispossession of dominion by another. The Portuguese had hardly completed their conquest in India before the intrepid and adventurous Hollanders drove them out. The commencement of the seventeenth century witnessed the conflicts of those two rival maritime powers, and attracted the attention of Europe. This was the signal for the establishment of that remarkable company of "United Merchants of England, trading to the East Indies," which, from its first charter, with a capital of £400,000, granted by Elizabeth, in December 31, 1600, has grown that herculean power of the most opulent corporation that ever existed; exerting at one time a controlling influence in a powerful government.

We do not compare California with India, nor the United States Mail Steam-

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ship Company, or any other, with the United Company of Merchants of England, trading to the East Indies, though there are points suggested in the consideration of both to force a comparison. California is a golden land in itself; and the doubling of Cape Horn by the first steamship after the discovery of gold, we have said, established a parallel to the doubling of the Cape of Good Hope, in 1497. While the one opened a new communication to India, and established a European dominion upon the islands of the Indian seas, and paved the way for the conquest of the peninsula, the other marked the creation of an Anglo-Saxon power on the Pacific Ocean, and connected, in a more rapid means of communication, the Western and Eastern Continents.

With these preliminary remarks, we now proceed to the third division of our paper.

The *Pacific Mail Steamship Company*, which, in connection with the *United States Mail Steamship Company*, on the Atlantic side, carries the United States mails to California and Oregon, was established in October, 1848, to carry out the contract awarded to Arnold Harris, as the lowest bidder for the mail service. It numbers at this time fourteen steamers of the following denomination:—The Golden Gate, 2,500 tons; Tennessee, 1,300; Northerner, 1,200; Republic, 1,200; Oregon, 1,099; Panama, 1,087; California, 1,050; Columbia, 800; Carolina, 600; Columbus, 600; Isthmus, 600; Unicorn, 600; Fremont, 600; John L. Stephens, 2,500. Total of tonnage of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, 15,536.

Of these the California, Panama and Oregon were the first built, and sailed from New-York to California, via Cape Horn, respectively, on 6th October and 1st and 8th December, 1848. The two first named were built by Wm. H. Webb, York, and are of equal dimensions, being 200 feet on deck, 33½ feet beam, and 20 feet hold. The Oregon was built by Messrs. Smith & Dimon. The engines of the California and Oregon are single side levers of the same diameter of cylinder and of equal stroke, being 70 inch cylinder, 8 feet, 7 inches stroke. They were constructed at the Novelty Works of Messrs. Stillman & Allen. The engine of the Panama is of the same description and power, and was constructed at the Allaire Works of Messrs. Allaire & Secor, New-York. The Carolina sailed for the Isthmus of Panama, Feb. 1850; the Columbia, Oct. 14, 1850; Tennessee, Dec. 5, 1849; Golden Gate, Aug. 5, 1851. We have been thus particular in giving the details of these ships, they being among the first placed upon the line. Their dimensions vary from 269 feet on deck, 40 feet breadth of beam, and 30½ feet depth of hold, which are the dimensions of the Golden Gate, to 159 length, 29 beam, 12½ hold, which are the dimensions of the Columbus. Besides those we have named as the builders of the first ships of this company, others have been purchased and built respectively by different builders. The engines worked in these steamers are principally one side levers of 75 inches cylinder, 8 feet stroke, in those from 1,300 to 1,000 tons; and in those of a smaller class, of the description of the Columbia, of 800 tons, they are 57 inch cylinder, five feet stroke. The engines of the Golden Gate and the John L. Stephens, the largest steamers in this line, are oscillating, of 85 inch cylinder, 9 feet stroke. They are constructed principally at the Novelty Works and at the Allaire.

The originators of the "Pacific Mail Steamship Company," are the Messrs. Howlands & Aspinwalls. Aspinwall, on the Isthmus, has been appropriately called after Wm. H. Aspinwall, one of those eminent merchants. These steamers are inspected and approved of by the Navy Department, and carry the United States mails on the Pacific side. They leave Panama on the arrival of the Atlantic steamers, and San Francisco on the 1st and 15th days of each month, and touch at Acapulco. They connect with the ports of Oregon. Charles A. Whitney, Esq., is the agent of the company.

In addition to this largely increased service, this company has also announced, that, on the 20th March, they will commence a *weekly line to California*, running every week direct between New-York and Aspinwall; and, in connection with the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, *once* each week between Panama and San Francisco.

The United States Mail Steamship Company contracted with the American government, under an act of Congress, to construct five steamships of

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1,500 tons, suitable for war purposes, and to carry the mails twice each month between New-York and Aspinwall, via Havana, and between New-York and New-Orleans, via Havana, twice each month. This company has not only built the five ships under the contract, with a tonnage of 12,800, and own five other steamers of an agregate of 8,300 tons, exceeding by 12,000 tons the contract requirement; but it now conveys the mails twice each month between New-York and Aspinwall direct; twice each month between New-Orleans and Aspinwall direct; twice each month between New-York and Aspinwall, via Havana, and twice each month between New-York and New-Orleans, via Havana; thus performing more than double mail service, and employing double the number of steamships required by the contract. The number of ships owned by and now in the service of the company, is nine, with one recently launched, and soon to be placed in the line. They are of the following denominations:

Georgia, 3,000; Ohio, 3,000; Illinois, 2,500; Empire City, 2,000; Crescent City, 1,500; Cherokee, 1,300; Philadelphia, 1,200; El Dorado, 1,300; Falcon, 1,000; George Law, 2,800. Total of tonnage of the steamers of the United States Mail Steamship Company (Law's line), 19,600.

Of the ships of this company, the Ohio, of 3,000 tons, was launched Aug. 12, 1848. The size varies from 248 feet on deck. 49 in breadth of beam, 33 in depth of hold, which are the dimensions of the Georgia, the largest ship of this line, and of 3,000 tons burden, to 204 feet length, 30 beam and 21 depth, which are the dimensions of the Falcon, the smallest, of 1,000 tons.

The Cherokee was built in 1848, by Wm. H. Webb. Her dimensions are, 215 feet on deck, 35 feet beam, 21½ hold. Her engine is a one side lever, 75 inch cylinder, 8 feet stroke, and was constructed by Stillman & Allen.

The Empire City and Crescent City were built by Wm. H. Brown. The dimensions of the former are, 245 feet on deck, 39 beam, 24 hold; the latter 235, 35, 23½. The El Dorado is of similar dimensions of the Cherokee, and was built by Thomas Collyer. The George Law, the magnificent new ship of this line just launched, was built by Wm. H. Webb. She is 280 feet on deck, 40 beam, 32 hold. Her engines are two inclined, 65 inch cylinder, 10 feet stroke, and are constructing at the Morgan Iron Works. The engines of the Georgia and Ohio were also constructed at these Works, and are, respectively, two side lever, 90 inches cylinder, 8 feet stroke. Those of the Crescent and Empire City are of the same description, from the same Works, and are of an equal diameter of cylinder and stroke of piston, viz., 80 inches, 9 feet.

The steamers of this line are dispatched with the California and Oregon mails from New-York, on the 5th and 20th of each month, for Aspinwall; and from New-Orleans on the 7th and 27th. These steamers establish, with the Pacific Mail Company, a connecting line between New-York and Ports in Mexico, California and Oregon.

Since the operation of the Panama Railroad, the transit of the Isthmus is performed in from 18 to 24 hours. This work bears such an intimate relation with the subject of our paper, that we cannot conclude this branch of it without alluding to its importance. In steam it is emphatically an isthmus in enterprise, connecting the two great Atlantic and Pacific oceans with the steam communications between them. It is now in rapid process of completion to Panama. The contractor of the work is C. M. Story, Esq., of New-York. The president is William C. Young, Esq., vice John L. Stephens, Esq., deceased.

As analogous to this subject, and as instructive in this connection, we here insert the views of an officer of the United States navy, written in 1839, upon the subject of connecting the two great oceans by means of a ship canal across the Isthmus of Panama. While so many projects are submitted at this time with a view to this oceanic communication by water, and as it has actually been commenced, and will soon be consummated by a rail-road, the impression of a writer, given in an account of "*A Passage across the Isthmus*," written only fourteen years ago, (in which he graphically narrates the many perils of that dangerous enterprise,) will furnish a striking parallel to the ease with which it is made at this day; at the same time that it will show that one view of the writer's visions has, at least, become realized:

"Our journey from the Pacific to the Atlantic was thus completed in the

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space of a little more than two days. The very irregular and devious course of the river Chagres made the distance we passed over upon it amount to fully as much as fifty miles; although the direct distance from Cruces to Chagres is not more than twenty miles. The practicability of cutting through this part of the Isthmus, and thus uniting the waters of the two oceans, has been much discussed; it would certainly be a stupendous undertaking, but the immense advantages to be derived from it are well worthy of the great labor, time and expense, which it would cost. It has been stated by some that the waters of the Pacific are considerably higher than those of the Atlantic; if such is the case, it would of course be a serious objection, as fears would be entertained of raising the Atlantic in such a manner as to cause a complete overflow of the West India Islands. The great difference of the tides of the two oceans in this latitude, is certainly very extraordinary. That of the Pacific has a rise and fall of as much as thirty or forty feet, while the Atlantic has not more than three or four. The height of the ridge of mountains we crossed is not so great as is generally believed; the chief difficulty in cutting through would be the nature of the soil being so rocky. As it is, I have strong hopes of seeing the work undertaken one of these days, and trust and believe that complete success would attend it, if properly conducted; and I have little faith in regard to the consequences that are apprehended by some to ensue from the different heights of the ocean."—*Republican Review, published in Washington, February*, 1839.

Vanderbilt's Line for San Francisco, via Nicaragua.—This line, forming a communication between New-York and San Juan del Norte, on the Atlantic, and between San Juan del Sur and San Francisco on the Pacific, is composed of the following steamships, viz: The Northern Light, 2,500 tons; Prometheus, 1,500; Pacific, 1,200; S. S. Lewis, 2,000; Morning Star, 2,500; Independence, 900; Pioneer. (lost,) 2,500; Brother Jonathan, 2,100; Star of the West, 1,600: Daniel Webster, 1,200: total amount of Vanderbilt's line, 18,000 tons.

Of these the two first sail from New-York, for San Juan del Norte, on the 5th and 20th of each month; and the five latter between San Juan del Sur and San Francisco. The Star of the West has recently been placed on the line, as also the Daniel Webster. From San Juan del Norte to San Juan del Sur, this line establishes a conveyance over the transit route of the Nicaragua Company. The route of this company passes through the republic of Nicaragua, from San Juan del Norte, by steamboats, 135 miles up the San Juan River, and across Lake Nicaragua, from which the river flows to Virgin Bay; and thence by horses and mules to San Juan del Sur, 12 miles in distance.

The Prometheus, the first steamer of this line, was built by James Simonson, N. Y., August 3d, 1850. The Northern Light, by the same builder, was launched October 25th, 1851. Star of the West, the last steamer placed upon the line, built by the same, was launched June, 1852. The Morning Star, now on the stocks, for this line, by the same, was commenced 1st February, 1852. The Brother Jonathan was built by Perrine, Patterson & Stack, Williamsburgh, N. Y. The dimensions of these steamers vary, from 252 length, 32 beam, 32 hold, which are the dimensions of the Northern Light; to 212, 35, 19 feet, which are the dimensions of the Daniel Webster, of 1200 tons. The engines of the Northern Light are two-beam, 60 inch cylinder, and 10 feet stroke, and were constructed at the Allaire Works; those of the Prometheus are of the same description, two-beam, 42 inches cylinder, 10 feet stroke, and are from the Morgan Works. The Brother Jonathan, from the same works, is one-beam of 72 feet cylinder, 11 feet stroke. The engines of the other ships of this line are of power corresponding with their tonnage. The Daniel Webster and Star of the West, ships recently built, we may remark, have beam engines, and are from the Allaire Works.

The New-York and California Steamship Line, (since March, 1853, organized into a corporate company, under the name and style of the New-York and California Steamship Company,) with a capital of $1,500,000, divided into shares of $1,000. Route, via Aspinwall and Panama, to and from San Francisco. Seven directors—Charles Augustus Davis, Sidney Brooks, Theodore Dehon, Jacob A. Westervelt, John C. Greene, D. B. Fearing, Warren Delano, Jr., all of New-York. At this date, the line is composed of the following

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steamships: Winfield Scott, (double engine,) 2,100 tons, built 1851; United States, (single engine,) 1,500, 1852; Cortes, (double engine,) 1,800, July, 1852; Union, (double engine,) 1,500, 1851. Total amount of tonnage of the New-York and California Steamship Company, 6,900.

The steamships of the line vary from 252 length, 35 feet beam, 29 feet hold—the dimensions of the Winfield Scott, to 235 feet length, 34 feet beam, 21 feet hold, which are those of the United States. The Winfield Scott and Cortes were built by Westervelt & Sons; their engines by the Morgan Iron Works. The Winfield Scott has two side lever engines, 66 inches cylinder, 8 feet stroke. The Cortes has two-beam, 42 inch cylinder, 10 feet stroke.

The dates of the departure of this line of steamships, from New-York, is on the 5th of each month, at 3 P. M.; from San Francisco, 1st of each month; from New-Orleans, the 6th of each month. The New-York and New-Orleans steamship intersects the same boat on the Pacific, and at Panama.

Three new steamships have just been contracted for by this corporation, each to be precisely like the others, so that a passenger booking at New-York secures the same accommodation on the Pacific as on the Atlantic. Capt. William Skiddy plans, models and superintends these new boats whilst building. The length of these new boats are 264 feet, breadth of beam 34 feet, depth 24½ feet, tonnage about 2400 each. The contract is made with Messrs. Westervelt & Sons for hull and spars; Messrs. Quintard, Merritt & Co., of the Morgan Iron Works, are to make the engines; their dimensions are, cylinders 50 inch diameter, 10 stroke of piston, and double engines to each boat.

Two other boats are about being contracted for, one of same size as the three, and another of smaller size, about 1,000 tons, to ply between New-Orleans and Aspinwall.

On the completion of these new boats there will be a semi-monthly communication between New-York and New-Orleans with San Francisco, instead of monthly, as now.

The communication from San Francisco with New-York and New-Orleans, will be in same manner.

Messrs. Davis, Brooks & Co., 26 Broadway, are the commercial agents of the line.

The Empire City Line.—This line is composed of the following steamers: the Sierra Nevada, 1,800 tons; City of Pittsburgh, (burned,) 2,000; San Francisco, 3,000: total tonnage of the steamers of the Empire City Line, 6,800.

The Sierra Nevada connects at Panama with the City of Pittsburgh. She was built by Wm. Collyer, and is 235 feet in length, 34 beam, 17 deep. Launched October 25, 1851. The Empire and Crescent City were originally connected with this line, and sailed between New-York and Chagres. The Empire's first trip to the latter port was the 17th of July, 1849. The Crescent's, the 23d December, 1848,—two of the first ships engaged in the California trade. The City of Pitttsburgh was built by Perrine, Patterson & Stack. The engines of the Sierra Nevada were constructed at the Morgan Works, and are two-beam, 42 inches, 10 feet stroke. The San Francisco, now in process of completion, is another ship of this line. Her hull is built by Wm. H. Brown; the dimensions of which are 275 feet in length, 42 beam, and 24 the depth of hold. Her engine, from the Morgan Works, is one-beam, 83 inch cylinder, 12 feet stroke. Messrs. Howard & Son, New-York, are the owners of this line.

From the foregoing estimate of the California and Oregon steamships, in connection with this port, it will be seen that the number of steamers engaged in that marine is 41, including the following of the Law line, which were formerly engaged in the California trade, but which now run between New-York, New-Orleans and Havana, viz: the Empire City, Crescent City, Cherokee, and Falcon, we have an aggregate steam fleet of 41 steamers.

These are under the management of five distinct companies, and embrace an aggregate of tonnage as follows: U. S. Mail Steamship Co., ten steamers, varying from 3,000 to 1,000 tons, 19,600; Pacific Mail Steamship Co., 14 steamers, varying from 2,500 to 600 tons, 15,536; Vanderbilt's line, ten steamers, varying from 2,500 to 1,200 tons, 18,000; New-York and San Francisco Steamship Co., four steamers, varying from 2,100 to 1,500 tons, 7,400; The Empire City Line, three steamers, varying from 3,000 to 2,000 tons, 6,800. Aggregate of tonnage

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in the California steam marine and the port of New-York, 67,336.

Added to this aggregate of the California steam fleet and tonnage employed in it, the aggregate number of ships and tonnage of the southern ports and West Indies, between these ports and New-York, we have a sum total of companies, steamers and tonnage, as follows:

	Companies.	Steamers.	Tonnage.
California	5	41	67,336
Southern ports, (including the West Indies)	6	17	20,912
Total	11	58	88,248

To this table add the aggregate number of companies, steamers and tonnage employed in the transatlantic marine, and we have a sum total of the steam marine of the port of New-York, considered in its connection with the subject of this paper, as follows:

	Companies.	Steamers.	Tonnage.
Aggregate number and amount between New-York, California, the Southern and West India ports	11	58	88,248
Aggregate number and amount between New-York and the transatlantic ports	5	18	40,762
Sum total	16	76	129,010

NOTE.—In the estimate of tonnage, the carpenters' measurement in most instances is given where this could be ascertained with accuracy. In other instances it is made from the general calculation of the companies. The difference between the custom-house and carpenters' measurement is sufficiently understood without deeming it necessary to go into a comparison of registers of tonnage.

ART. VII.—RESOURCES, ETC., OF PHILADELPHIA.

No. II.

MR. TYSON'S LETTER TO THE LATE MR. PETER.

I OBSERVED in my previous letter, that Pennsylvania and her metropolis advanced more rapidly in population, arts, and wealth, than their older neighbors of New-York and New-England; and that this early momentum was maintained to within a quarter of a century of the present time. The state and city now stand perhaps numerically as *second* to the city and state of New-York; but possessing, as they do, the means of greatness beyond the resources of their competitors, it requires no aid from the genius of prophecy to see, that Pennsylvania and Philadelphia must each stand *prima absque secunda*, respectively pre-eminent, without a rival in this country.

In tracing the career of our city, we have seen that her business relations with Europe were arrested by the abstraction of the capital and attention necessary to its success; that it was decoyed to distant and gigantic enterprises in the interior—to mines and furnaces, to canals and railways. I am now to inquire what effect these developments and improvements have produced, in enhancing the productive wealth of the state, and adding means to the city. You will find, as I proceed, that the temporary check which was given to the tide of her prosperity, in obstructing its external current, has generously repaired the damage by opening the great fountains of the internal deep; and that within and beyond the borders of Pennsylvania, various elements are uniting their forces, which will bring back with tenfold increase all that has been diverted or withheld, and will indefinitely swell the volume of her domestic and foreign trade. Permit me then to return to the topic with which I closed my epistle, and consider the feasibility of restoring to Philadelphia the foreign commerce of which she has been deprived.

The writers of New-York insist that her situation on the Delaware River, at a distance of nearly one hundred miles from the Atlantic, is liable to many objections. On the other hand, all impartial persons of competent intelligence—experienced navigators, well-informed merchants, and gentlemen conversant with nautical affairs—agree in a different sentiment. They find in Europe the largest towns, and the most extended activity, the characteristics of ports situated on rivers nearly as far removed

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from the open sea. London on the Thames, Paris on the Seine, and Liverpool on the Mersey, two of which are the largest cities of Europe, can boast of no great advantage over Philadelphia in proximity to the ocean.

But the Delaware was once traversed by a rich and busy commerce. As the length of the river did not prevent its successful prosecution, so it can interpose no barrier to its return, since modern improvements, such as the facilities of steam and other artificial aids to navigation, overcome the distance in a few hours. In geographical space, she is as remote from the Atlantic as when she engrossed so large a portion of American commerce; but in point of time she has made no inconsiderable approaches, since distance is to be measured not by miles, but by the speed of the motion employed to overcome it. The mildness of the climate and an efficient ice-breaker place her beyond the visitation of a casualty, to which the Siberian winters of Boston render the harbor of that city peculiarly exposed. In brief, the tug and the ice-boat have removed every diversity of ingenious objection, and dissipated or neutralized every form of physical impediment.

These appliances of modern times do not lessen the security of her marine, while they place her on the same platform with the most favored port on the sea. Her ships while in port are effectually secured from ocean blasts, and enter on their voyages with the confidence of safety, and with all assurances of dispatch.

But the kind and watchful guardians of our city in New-York, ever solicitous that she should do herself no injury by rashness, raise their warning voices in a chorus of objections. They prudently hint, but in whispers, that the shoal and narrow channel of the Delaware presents insuperable obstacles to the easy admission into our port of the largest vessels; and that the want of room for wharves prevents us from accommodating a large mercantile marine. Such intimations, whether by wink or inuendo, or by direct and unequivocal assertion, whether made in ignorance of facts, or from motives of wanton disparagement, are wholly unfounded and gratuitous.

The accommodations for shipping at the port of Philadelphia are ample, and certainly more than equal to the present requisitions of the port of New-York. The noble river itself is nearly a mile in width, from the Pennsylvania to the Jersey shore. A line of wharves, more than three miles long, now stretches along the eastern front of Philadelphia. The chain may be prolonged beyond Richmond on the north, to Greenwich Point, beyond the Navy Yard, on the south, making a distance of six miles, and capable of indefinite extension beyond these limits. On the bosom of this majestic highway, the largest vessel in the naval service may securely ride up to and beyond the city. At the Navy Yard on its bank were built some of the finest specimens of naval architecture of which our country can boast. The United States ship of the line, Pennsylvania, the pride and boast of the American navy, and beyond question one of the largest vessels in the world, found her unobstructed passage to the ocean from her dock at Philadelphia The channel of the Delaware is abundantly wide and deep for the requisitions of commerce in peace and the exigencies of navigation in time of war. It appears, from the official chart of the coast survey, that the channel is seldom less than a quarter of a mile in breadth, and varies in depth, at the most depressed stage of low water, from four to nine and a half fathoms, except at the bar below Fort Mifflin. At this point, which is but a few rods in extent, the deepness is eighteen feet at low water; but as the tide rises to seven feet eight inches above the plane to which the soundings are reduced, a profundity even there is attained which is equal to any emergency and the wants of the largest craft. In the face of these facts, officially ascertained and recorded, and of the commercial history of the Delaware, one of the newspapers of New-York is in the habit of informing and repeating, with emphasis, to its willing or credulous readers, that the stream of our magnificent Delaware will not admit the passage of merchant ships of the first class and highest tonnage! I shall hereafter give you some account of our mercantile marine, and of the vessels which habitually sail from the port.

It thus appears that Philadelphia has convenient accommodations for a large marine, has a safe harbor, and an expansive outlet to the ocean. Nothing but the absence of will on the part of her

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merchants to appropriate these blessings —nothing but a sluggish and censurable indifference to the rarest natural advantages—nothing but the unmanly spirit which would tamely submit itself to a degrading and suicidal dependence on the shipping of New-York—can prevent the return, as their opposites effected the acquisition, of a remote as well as proximate, of a great as well as productive commerce. Shakespeare, with a stroke of his pen, thus indelibly engraves the decree of fate, or the deliberate award of mankind, as the result of inactivity:—

> "An active dwarf we do allowance give
> Before a sleeping giant."

But Philadelphia has not only a noble river, but the materials necessary to make it the avenue of a mighty commerce.

In order the more distinctly to show her capacity to regain what she has lost, with additions proportioned to her augmented numbers and larger capital, the eye must be fixed on her history and progress, while glancing at the elements of trade within and around her. The genius of Philadelphia commerce should be endowed with those faculties of past and future which are ascribed to the double-faced Janus of antiquity; one to appropriate the rich and instructive lessons which a century and a half has revealed, that the other may secure that brilliant destiny which the illuminated record unfolds. Let us see how a survey of surrounding circumstances and the register of past experience will justify a favorable prediction in regard to her future career.

Pennsylvania possesses in her site one element of intrinsic superiority over all her sisters. She is the only state in the Union which has a navigable outlet to the Atlantic, a footing on the lakes, and a command of the western waters. Her controlling sceptre is admitted over the long line of the Ohio, by standing at its head, at Pittsburgh. But before I trace the advantages of this position in furnishing so many inlets to the vast reservoir of her external trade, so many tributaries to the expansive sea of her foreign commerce, permit me to take a rapid view of what her own territory supplies.

The resources of the state are surpassingly rich. The anthracite coal trade, which commenced by actual exportation in 1820, with 365 tons, will amount in the present year to more than 4,500,000. Since the year 1845, the vessels employed in these shipments, at Richmond, have exceeded in number and capacity the whole foreign tonnage of New-York. Your town of Newcastle, in England, is said to enjoy from the coal business alone, a commerce second only to London itself. We may reasonably anticipate, from the increasing exports of that article from year to year, and the value of the return freights, that the suburb of Richmond, now three-quarters of a mile from the northern extremity of Philadelphia, will soon mingle with and form part of the metropolis itself. So long ago as 1837, the insurable interest in the coal trade, passing round Cape May, was estimated by Major Bache, upon competent data, to exceed $22,000,000 per annum. At that time the anthracite coal trade, concentrated on the Delaware, had not arrived at a *third* of its present magnitude. Nor do I include in the estimate of four and a half millions of tons for the anthracite trade of the current year, the western and northern shipments of bituminous coals, which, it is believed, will exceed the half of that quantity. If the supply from the mines of Pennsylvania has risen in thirty years from 365 tons to nearly *five millions annually*, it is easy to calculate the ratio of future increase, and how soon, with the bituminons trade, it will equal that of the British dominions.

The iron manufacture of Pennsylvania, exposed as it is to perverse, and visited as it has been by adverse legislation, greatly transcends in amount of production that of all the other states of the Union. We exceed the product of manufacture in Russia and Sweden united, and go beyond that of all Germany. We produce more iron than France, and equal in magnitude the production of England, as her manufactures stood in the year 1820. It would be difficult to compute the value of this business to Pennsylvania if the manufacturer of iron had not to contend with the low rates of wages paid to the English laborer, while he is obliged to pay those which are prevalent in this country. An excellent mineral, and the means of working it, abound in surpassing quantities; but owing to the large capital required for the maintenance of the business, and the risks attending its pursuit,

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the making of iron is languishing, and its results are uncertain and precarious. The works established are not driven to half their capacity, with incredible loss to the state and deep injury to its citizens.

What has made England the richest country in Europe, but the possession of coal and iron, and the protection they received, in the early period of their history, from the ruinous effects of foreign competition? The relation which England bears to the rest of Europe, from the wealth which these minerals amass, will be sustained by Pennsylvania towards her sisters of the confederacy. Your writers go far towards assigning, as the only reason for England becoming the great capitalist of Europe, her possession of coal and iron. Professor Buckland informs us that the facilities imparted by coal to manufacture, enable less than one million of her population to perform the labor, in the production of artificial fabrics, of 400,000,000 of persons. Richard Cobden discovers in her iron and coal "the primary source of her wealth and power," and declares that the want of them alone "prevents other nations of Europe from rivaling her in manufacturing greatness." McCulloch and other writers of authority confirm this view, and express the conviction that if the British *coal* should become exhausted, her boasted manufactures, now so dependent upon machinery, would soon become extinct. You may hence see, in the countless abundance of these minerals over Pennsylvania, one of the grand sources of her domestic wealth, and in the early and extensive developments of these elements of convenience and manufacture, and in the means of their conveyance to market, her best title to pre-eminence in commerce.

Pennsylvania contains within her borders a larger number of factories for the making of cotton and woolen goods, than any state of the Union; nor has any member of the confederacy a deeper stake in the due encouragement of these two species of domestic industry. The census of 1850 places her highest in number on the list of these establishments, even above the large manufacturing States of Massachusetts and New-York. The former has 213 cotton, and 119 woolen factories, and the latter 86 for cotton, and 149 for wool. In Pennsylvania there are 788 of these establishments in all, of which 208 are employed in the cotton, and 580 in the woolen manufacture. The pecuniary value of these establishments is not at present ascertainable.

No one needs be told of the agricultural capacities of Pennsylvania, of the fertility of the soil, and the excellence of her farmers. According to the same census, she is the largest wheat-producing state of the Union, her product being now greater than that of agricultural Ohio, and far exceeding in quantity that of her neighbor, the State of New-York. The returns give to Pennsylvania 15,482,191 bushels, or 2,400,000 bushels more than New-York, whose arable domain is confessedly greater. Several of the states are before Pennsylvania in the article of maize, or Indian corn, but she carries the palm in the general productions of agriculture. These fruits of her fields are constantly on the increase, and considering the broad belt of sterile mountains which divide and environ her, and the vast area of the mineral soil, the prevailing fertility of her extended plains and valleys inspires the emotion of wonder as well as the sentiment of gratitude. This is doubtless owing chiefly to the bounty of nature, but something is due to the cultivation and thrift, the industry and intelligence of the rural population. The practical farmer of Pennsylvania cannot find a happier or more plentiful home than that which his own acres supply. They in turn cultivate his virtues, while they bound the circle of his wants and ambition.

"Each wish contracting fits him for the soil."

It may now be well to compute by authentic arithmetic the aggregate amount of her various and multiplied resources. I rely for the accuracy of my figures upon estimates, prepared in the year 1844, from the official returns of the United States census of 1840, and compiled under the eyes of John Downs and Freeman Hunt, the well-known editor of the Merchants' Magazine, a work generally received as correct in its statistical details. According to these tables, the total value of real estate in Pennsylvania is $1,400,000,000, and of personal property $700,000,000, making a capital of TWENTY-ONE HUNDRED MILLIONS OF DOLLARS! No estimate of the real and

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personal property of New-York amounted, at that period, to *one-third* of this aggregate. If we add to it the wealth which has since been accumulated, by constant development and unstinted expenditure, the sum will be so much increased as to depress New-York still lower, in comparison with Pennsylvania.

Such is the present wealth, and such the foundation of the future resources of this state. And, thanks to the prodigality of a former age, these riches are not wholly unproductive, nor "dead weights" upon the present times. Capital is still required adequately to unfold this magazine of nature, though much has already been expended. For the development of the mineral wealth of the state, I ascertain that the expenditure amounts to *five times* the sum appropriated by Congress to all physical improvements whatever in the United States, since the year 1804,—for roads, fortifications, harbors, and rivers!

Let us then see how the public spirit and enlightened activity of her metropolis, under the depressions of an exiled commerce, a transferred and buried capital, has made these multiplied benefits her own. This view will exhibit the capabilities of the city to sustain a large foreign commerce, and present such inducements as may exist, to the collection of the funds necessary to establish at her port a line of regular steamers.

The whole number of railways *within the State* of Pennsylvania, which exceed a mile in length, is 42, embracing together an aggregate extent of 1132 miles. Authentic data are before me, laboriously compiled by Col. Childs, which show that the cost of constructing much the greater portion of these 1132 miles of railway, amounts to the sum of $48,236,431. If to this sum be added the cost of those which are not officially ascertained, and of those prolonged beyond our limits, but made with Pennsylvania capital, the estimate, upon reasonable presumptions, would greatly increase the line of distance, and swell the whole expenditure to above *sixty millions of dollars*. The length of the canals made within the borders of Pennsylvania is above 1,000 miles, the construction of which may be estimated to have cost nearly *thirty millions of dollars*. The immense sums which have been employed in making tunnels and adits to coal, and subterranean and superficial structures, for mining, and in the disinterment of iron ore, and works connected with its manufacture, would more than double the expenditure for railways and canals. No city in the Union has been so profuse as Philadelphia in the application of its capital, to develop the material wealth of the state in which she is situated; nor can any other state of the confederacy exhibit such extensive lines of artificial conveyance.

As Pennsylvania is in the van among her sisters in resources and improvements, so will be the destiny of her metropolis in magnitude and trade. SHE, *and not New-York, is the* GREAT DISTRIBUTER AND SELLER OF MERCHANDISE *to a large portion of the western and southern country.* Not content with various railway connections with many, the chief points of trade in her own state, she will soon hold in her iron embrace the cities of Columbus, Cincinnati, and St. Louis, by way of Pittsburgh, the great western emporium of Pennsylvania. To these granaries, the various avenues of western trade converge. At no distant day she will place her cars, by way of her own great entrepot, at Cleveland, in Ohio, and by direct communication, at the town of Erie, in her own state, on the Lake. These connections will secure a large portion of the trade of that grand highway of waters. At Wheeling, in the State of Virginia, she will participate with Baltimore in the southern trade. These points of junction give to Philadelphia the trade of that immense region west, north, and south, whose luxuriant opulence would build into greatness and sustain the prosperity of many cities. Locally situated *between* New-York and the fertile districts beyond, their trade is naturally hers, and she now is stretching out her iron arms to receive what nature so bountifully offers.

New-York, having no geographical connection with the West, is limited by her natural boundary to the lake trade, and encounters, in her ambitious endeavors to seize our western commerce, the interposing barrier of the county of Erie, in Pennsylvania. If the existing legislation of the state is to be respected, and future legislatures prove faithful to their duty, *the gate of the West* will never

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be opened to such an avenue as the New-York and Erie Rail-road. This thoroughfare is constructed upon the *very narrow* principle of the *wide guage*, for the exclusive benefit of the city of New York, and to prevent any beneficial union with the works of Pennsylvania, the width of whose railways requires different engines and cars. Confining her to Dunkirk, until Philadelphia shall have reached the port of Erie, with a railway which she is resolved to construct, the western roads of the guage common to Ohio, will converge at the same terminus, and their cars, by a better and shorter route, will pass directly to Philadelphia, leaving to New-York only that portion of trade which is specially destined for a northern mart. Such an arrangement secures to Philadelphia the commerce concentrated at Erie, as she has already secured that of the upper lakes at Cleveland. By her connections with Cincinnati and Wheeling, she will appropriate to herself much of that southern custom which is intended to enrich the metropolis of the state of Maryland.

It is by means of the Pennsylvania railway to Pittsburgh, prolonged westwardly to St. Louis, joining Cleveland on one side, and Wheeling and Cincinnati on the other, and stretching through Kentucky to Nashville, and ulterior points, that Philadelphia will enjoy the immense trade of the Upper Lakes, of the Ohio, of the Upper Mississippi, and of their numerous, beautiful, and teeming tributaries. The improvements of New-York cannot offer a competition with Philadelphia, for the trade of that expansive region, of which these cities and towns form the natural drains, or the grand foci. Cleveland is 175 miles, and Cincinnati 249 miles nearer to Philadelphia than New-York; and the remoter points of junction beyond maintain these relative distances. The completion of the railway, now nearly finished, which is to connect these rich and wide domains to Philadelphia, will form a marked era in her history. It will be the epoch not merely of the commencement of an intimate intercourse with the West and its dependencies, but the time when other enterprises are to spring into life.

No untoward accident has ever marred the prospects of the Pennsylvania rail-road, which has been blest in an excellent engineer,* by whom it has been capitally located on the shortest line which nature permits, with light gradients, and built in the best manner, and at the least possible expense. This undertaking has been well sustained by popular appreciation, and by the liberality of public and private assistance. It will literally redeem the pledge of its original friends, *that no debt should be incurred in its prosecution*, and that the great work should be carried on and finished by means alone of subscriptions to the capital stock. This policy, which was declared to be fundamental, has been faithfully observed; and the capital of the company, now nearly if not fully subscribed, must prove, so unlike all previous efforts in Pennsylvania, *a paying stock*, greatly beyond the legal interest of money, and of consequence universally in demand.

The successful completion of this enterprise will create a motive or incitement to the construction of a great railway, which shall connect Sunbury with Erie. Such a work will control the destinies of that mighty commerce with which Philadelphia will be enriched by the intermediate country and the north-west, concentrated at the lake, its northern terminus. Those disjointed links, which the continuity of the chain requires, between Harrisburg and Sunbury, will be speedily undertaken, so as to form an unbroken connection with these interesting and fertile regions. No doubt can be entertained that Philadelphia will shake off all apathy and unconcern, and rouse herself to the magnitude of a present and impending danger. The cars of the New-York and Erie railway are now in the vicinity of the town of Erie in Pennsylvania, and menace Philadelphia with the abstraction of her trade in her own state, and at one of the most copious sources of its supply.

That selfish and exclusive policy which suggested the six-feet guage in opposition to the general guage of the country, will, in the presence of a rival, produce the natural effect of illiberality, in cutting off a profitable union between that railway and the western roads. It indeed prevents the single evil which this short-sighted policy proposed alone to redress,—the diversion of merchan-

* John Thompson, Esq.

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dise, once in its cars, from their destination into the city of New-York. By forming a barrier, as it does, to the flow of all tributaries to its own stream, the invidious design will be thwarted or countervailed, by turning these currents into the swelling channel of a railway leading to Philadelphia. But the line from Erie to Philadelphia, being 90 miles shorter than that to New-York, must determine the direction of the trade, whenever and as soon as the opportunity of a transit hither shall be presented.

With such means of intercourse, such of trade and travel to and with the West, North and South, no value can be set, no calculation made of their advantages, which would not be deemed vain or extravagant. The various treasures of the state will seek a market in its own metropolis, and the untold wealth of the fruitful regions beyond, surpassing in extent and fertility half the area of cultivated Europe, will be poured at her feet. With these aids and the facilities presented by her noble river, the commerce of Philadelphia requires but the sustaining hand of an earnest home-bred pride; it solicits but attention to the dictates of imperious duty to be all that her local wants demand, all that honest ambition may covet, all that reasonable hope can justify.

ART. VIII.—SLAVERY AND SLAVE STATISTICS OF THE SOUTH, ETC.

STATISTICS OF NEGRO POPULATION NORTH AND SOUTH—FOREIGN MISREPRESENTATION OF THE SOUTH—NASHVILLE AND MEMPHIS, TENNESSEE, ETC.

A DOCUMENT has lately appeared in the *Richmond Enquirer*, which embodies so many instructive statistics in relation to the negro population of that state, which may in some sense be applicable to all of the southern states, that we think its incorporation into the Review a public service. The relative condition of the free blacks north and south presents a commentary upon the pseudo-philanthropic negro-Tom book-making spirit of the day, which is worth fifty elaborate arguments in defence of the slaveholder. Upon the question of colonizing, we have never been able to come to as sanguine conclusions as some of our friends, or to perceive how, as a system, it could become of more than very limited application.

RICHMOND, VA., *March* 25, 1853.

DEAR SIR:—In reply to your inquiry in relation to the crimes of free negroes and mulattoes, I will, with great pleasure, give you the most reliable information to be gleaned from the public documents at hand. But, it is to be regretted, that most of the prison reports, (otherwise full and interesting,) are quite defective in the main facts most intimately connected with the subject of inquiry. Enough, however, may be collected from the criminal records, of both slave and free states, to establish the low grade of morals so generally attributed to this class of persons.

That you may have the facts, in the most convenient form for comparison, the white and free colored population, and the white and free colored convicts, will be given, respectively, of several slave and free states, with some explanatory remarks, beginning with the statistics of our own state. The white population of Virginia, in 1840, was 740,968; in 1850, was 895,304; average for ten years, 818,136.

In the ten fiscal years commencing the 1st of October, 1840; and ending the 30th of September, 1850, there were received in the Penitentiary 352 white convicts. If we average them at 36 per annum, we shall have a ratio of *one* convict for every 23,003 white persons in the state.

The free colored population of Virginia, in 1840, was 49,834; in 1850, 53,829; annual average, 51,826.

In these ten years, (beginning the 1st of October, 1840, and ending 30th Sept. 1850,) 159 free colored convicts were received in the Penitentiary. If we make the average 16, we shall find the ratio is *one* convict for 3,201 free persons of color, exhibiting the proportion of crime among them as 7.18 to 1 among the white people of the state.

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In Massachusetts, where the free man of color is admitted to the bar and raised to the pulpit, the statistics of crime are less favorable to his class than in any slave state.

The white population of Massachusetts in 1840 was 729,030; in 1850, 985,704; annual average, 857,367.

In the 10 years from the 1st of October, 1840, to the 30th of September, 1850, the white convicts received in the Penitentiary of that state, numbered 1,129, being an average, say of 113, and giving a ratio of *one* to 7,587 of the white population.

The free colored population of Massachusetts in 1840 was 8,669; in 1850, 8,795; annual average, 8,732.

Within the ten fiscal years last mentioned, 120 colored convicts were received in the said Penitentiary; an average of 12 a year, or *one* for every 727 free persons of color in the state. These facts exhibit the crimes of the free colored people of that state, as bearing the proportion of 9.58 to 1 among the whites. In this term of ten years, the imprisonment of free colored persons in Massachusetts was in the proportion of 2.27 to 1 in Virginia; and among the white persons 3.29 to 1 in Virginia.

It is due to the subject, after giving the above comparison between Virginia and Massachusetts, to say that crime has greatly increased in this state, since the late revisal of our laws. In the two years commencing the 1st of October, 1850, and ending the 30th Sept., 1852, we received 133 white convicts, being an annual average of 66. According to the white population of 1850, this number gives a ratio of one convict for 13,565 white persons. In the same time, 48 free persons of color were received, average of 24 or *one* for every 2,159, being in the proportion of 6.33 to 1. It will also be seen that crime among the whites has increased, above the average of the preceding ten years, 83 per cent.; and among the free negroes, 50.

On the 1st of February, 1853, the convicts in the Penitentiary consisted of white males, 154; white females, none. Colored males 80; females, 6. Total, free persons, 240.

There is, therefore, *one* white convict imprisoned for every 5.813 white persons, and *one* free colored convict for every 625 free negroes in the state.

It is also proper to state that in the year ending the 30th September, 1851, no less than 151 white and 18 colored convicts were received in the Penitentiary of Massachusetts; being in the ratio of *one* for every 6,527 of the white, and *one* to every 488 of the colored population of that state, being in the proportion of 13.37 to 1. There remained in prison on the last mentioned day, 422 white and 50 colored convicts, showing that *one* white convict remains in prison for every 2,335 white persons; and *one* colored convict for every 175 colored persons in said state. These statements exhibit a most remarkable disparity between the imprisonments in Massachusetts and Virginia.

Maryland, a slave state, lying by the side of Pennsylvania, and containing the largest free negro population among the states, exhibits a fair specimen of the condition to which every slave state must in time be reduced, unless proper measures be adopted for the removal of the free colored population.

The white population of Maryland in 1850, was 418,590. The free colored population, 74,077.

In the year ending the 30th of November, 1852, the Penitentiary of that state received 44 white and 51 free colored convicts; a ratio of *one* white convict, to 9,285 white persons, and 1 free colored convict to 1,452 free colored persons in the state, being in the proportion of 6.39 to 1. On the last mentioned day, there remained in the Penitentiary 162 white and 148 free colored convicts, being a ratio of *one* to every 2,584 whites, and one to 500 of the free colored population.

Pennsylvania compares better with Virginia, perhaps, than any other free state. The white population of Pennsylvania in 1820 was 2,258,463. Free persons of color, 53,323.

In the year ending the 31st of December, 1852, the two Penitentiaries of that state received 198 white and 24 free colored convicts, being *one* for 11,406 of the white population; and *one* to 2,158 of the colored persons, and in the proportion of 5.28 to 1. On the last mentioned day, there remained in the two prisons 289 white, and 71 colored convicts; being in the ratio of *one* for 7,811 of the white, and one for 751 of the free colored population.

New-York in 1850 had a white popu-

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lation of 3.049,457. Free colored population, 47,937.

She has *three* State Penitentiaries, in which, in the year ending the 1st of December, 1851, were received 658 convicts, of whom 556 were white, and 62 colored, as nearly as can be ascertained from the reports. This gives a ratio of *one* white convict for every 5,304 white persons, and one colored convict for every 772 of the colored population; being 6.86 to 1. Remaining in prison *one* white convict for 1,713 white persons, and one colored convict for every 225 free colored persons in the state, being in the proportion of 7.62 to 1.

In New-Jersey in 1850, the white population was 466,240. Free colored population, 23,093. On the 1st January, 1850, the Penitentiary of *New-Jersey* contained white convicts, 134. Free colored population, 51.

But the number received the preceding year is not given in the report. Thus it will be seen, that the ratio of imprisonments among the white people is *one* for every 3,554, and among the free negroes *one* for every 17.85 of the colored population. Being the proportion of 7.84 to 1.

In Connecticut, in 1850, the white population was 363,305. On the 1st January, 1850, the Penitentiary of Connecticut contained white convicts, 128. Free colored convicts, 51. Being a ratio of *one* white convict for every 2,838 white persons, and *one* free colored convict for every 159 of the colored population, being 17.85 to 1.

In Indiana, in 1850, the white population was 977,628. Free colored population, 10,788. Convicts in the Penitentiary of that state, on the 30th of November, 1849—white, 116; free colored, 15; ratio of whites, one to 8,427; colored, one to 719; being in the proportion of 11.72 to 1.

For convenience, I have thrown the results above mentioned into the form of tables—Nos. 1 and 2. By No. 1, it will be seen that the proportion of crime committed among the free colored population of Virginia, Massachusetts, Maryland, Pennsylvania and New-York, as determined by the annual average number of felons *received in prison*, is as 7.71 to 1, among the white population. No. 2, gives the proportion as determined by the number of felons *remaining in prison*, in the same states to be, as 7.49 to 1. The latter table, also, gives the proportion of crime among the colored population of New-Jersey, Connecticut and Indiana, determined, in the same way, to be 12.47 to 1; and the average, among the eight states named above, to be 9.11 to 1, among the whites of those states.

If we take the average proportion of crime among the colored population of Maryland and Virginia, we shall find it to be 7.23 to 1 among the whites; while the like average of the six free states, to wit, Pennsylvania, New-Jersey, New-York, Connecticut, Massachusetts, and Indiana, will be 10.90 to 1. From this we may infer, that there is 46 per cent. more crime committed by the free colored population of those states, than by the same class of population in Maryland and Virginia.

If we add the rate of increase which occurred before 1850 to the free colored population of that year, we shall find in Virginia at this time 57,824 free negroes and mulattoes. The proportion of males and females over 21 years of age, will be found to be 24,519; and those over 55 amount to 4,355, leaving between the ages of 21 and 55 years, 20,164 taxable persons. For convenience, we will put the males and females each at 10,082.

By the provisions of the Senate bill, the tax of $5 each on the males, would produce	$50,410	
From which, deduct for delinquencies and commissions, 20 per cent	10,085	40,325
At a tax of $1 each on the females would produce	10,085	
Deduct from this sum 20 per cent	2,016	8,069
Present tax, on seals attached to registers of freedom		4,723
Sum raised from free persons of color by these taxes		53,114
Add to this the annual appropriation out of the treasury under the act of 1850		30,000
		$83,114

At $75 each, this sum would remove upwards of one thousand free persons of color annually. And if it be the design to give every portion of the state the equal benefit of the funds appropriated, it is quite certain that much less than $75 would be inadequate to the object designed.

The removal of one thousand a year would so far exceed the annual increase as to give assurance of the final success of this great and benevolent enterprise.

I am, very truly, your ob'nt serv't,

C. S. MORGAN.

GEORGE E. DENEALE, ESQ.,
Senate of Virginia.

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No. I.—*A Table of Crimes, giving the Annual Rate of Imprisonments to the Population and the Proportion between the Crimes of White Persons and Free Persons of Color:*

	Rates or ratio of convicts received in penitentiaries to the white and free colored population.		Crimes among the free colored persons to one among the whites, in proportion to population.
	White population.	Free colored population.	
Virginia.—The ratio of convicts received in the penitentiary, annually, for ten years, ending 30th of September, 1850, to the average population, was	1 to 23,003	1 to 3,001	7.18 to 1
In the two years from 1st of October, 1850, to 30th of September, 1852, according to the population of 1850, the rate was, annually	1 to 13,565	1 to 2,159	6.33 to 1
[From this it will seen the increase among the whites was 83 per cent., and among the free persons of color 50 per cent.]			
Massachusetts.—The rate of convicts received in the penitentiary of that state, in the ten years ending the 30th of September, 1850, to the average population, was	1 to 7,587	1 to 727	9.58 to 1
In the year ending the 30th of September, 1851, the rate of convicts received in the Massachusetts penitentiary, for the year ending the 30th of November, 1852, according to the population of 1850, was	1 to 6,527	1 to 488	13.37 to 1
Maryland.—The rate of convicts received in the penitentiary, was, according to the population of 1850	1 to 9,285	1 to 1,452	6.39 to 1
Pennsylvania.—The convicts received in the two penitentiaries of that state in the year ending the 31st of December, 1852, according to the population of 1850, was at the rate of	1 to 11,406	1 to 2,158	5.28 to 1
New-York received in her three state penitentiaries, convicts, according to the population of 1850, in the year ending the 1st of December, 1851, at the rate of	1 to 5,304	1 to 772	6.86 to 1
Average			7.71 to 1

No. II.—*A Table giving the Ratio of White and Free Colored Convicts, remaining in Prison, to the White and Free Colored Population, and the Proportion of Crime between the two Classes:*

	The ratio of convicts remaining in prison to the population.		The proportion of crimes of colored to white persons.
	White persons.	Free colored persons.	
In the Virginia penitentiary, on the 1st of February, 1853, there remained in prison at the rate of	1 to 5,813	1 to 625	9.30 to 1
In the Massachusetts penitentiary, on the 30th of September, 1851, there remained in prison at the rate of	1 to 2,335	1 to 175	13.00 to 1
In the Maryland penitentiary, on the 30th of November, 1852, there remained convicts at the rate of	1 to 2,584	1 to 500	5.16 to 1
In the two Pennsylvania penitentiaries, there remained in prison on the 31st of December, 1852, at the rate of	1 to 7,811	1 to 750	10.41 to 1
In the three New-York penitentiaries for the year ending the 1st of December, 1851, there remained in prison	1 to 1,713	1 to 225	7.62 to 1
Average of the five states above named			7.49 to 1
In the New-Jersey penitentiary, on the 1st of January, 1850, there remained in prison, according to the population of 1850, at the rate of	1 to 3,554	1 to 453	7.84 to 1
In the Connecticut penitentiary, on the 1st of January, 1850, there remained in prison at the rate of	1 to 2,838	1 to 159	17.85 to 1
In the Indiana penitentiary, on the 30th of September, 1849, according to the census of 1850, there remained in prison at the rate of	1 to 8,427	1 to 719	11.72 to 1
The three last-mentioned states averaged			12.47 to 1
Average of the eight states above named			9.11 to 1

FOREIGN MISREPRESENTATION OF THE SOUTH.—Our readers will remember the appearance some months ago of an article in Blackwood, containing many severe strictures upon the slaveholders of the South, as well as upon the subject of slavery at large. We have met with a very satisfactory reply in a late number of the *Mobile Tribune*, as follows:—

The January number of *Blackwood's Edinburgh Magazine* contains an article entitled "Slavery and the Slave Power in the United States of America," which betrays the most singular ignorance, on the part of the writer, of the facts and circumstances connected with the subject on which he undertakes to treat. His very inferences, so unjust in themselves, and so incompatible with the facts stated, evince a mind so contracted in its comprehension, and so thoroughly saturated with its own prejudices, as to be utterly unqualified to do justice to the subject. How such an article, so careless in its statements, and so illogical in its deductions, found its way into a magazine remarkable, if not for the general correctness of its views on public ques-

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tions, certainly for the force and adroitness with which they are advocated, I am at a loss to conceive.

The whole article appears to have been made up from the study of several anti-slavery publications, in which truth does not appear to have been a very important consideration, and it is set off with an apparent appeal to comparative statistics, in which the abuse of figures amounts in one place to positive misstatement, which, with a very slight examination, could have been avoided. I will first notice his statistical errors, and show how entirely incorrect his inferences are.

He gives the following as the respective free populations of the slaveholding and non-slaveholding states at the periods specified:—

	1840.	1850.
Free states	9,654,865	13,583,328
Slave states	7,290,719	6,393,758

This statement is intended to prove that slavery is unfavorable to the growth of population, showing, as the writer says, "that, while in the last ten years, the population of the free states has increased by nearly four millions, that of the slave states, though Texas has been added to them in the interval, has decreased by nine hundred thousand." But, fortunately, the fact relied upon by the writer for his deduction, is an error in the *American Almanac* for 1852, in which the total population of the slave states for 1840 is classed under the head of "free population." I shall give the table of population as it really was at both periods:—

1840.	
Northern free population	9,654,865
Southern free "	4,803,606
" slave "	2,487,113
Total population of the states	16,945,584

1850.	
Northern free population	13,533,328
Southern free "	6,393,758
" slave "	3,179,589
Total population of the states	23,106,675

In this table the territories and the District of Columbia are excluded. By it, will be seen at once that the free population of the South, instead of diminishing nearly 900,000 in ten years, has, on the contrary, increased 1,590,132.

The error in the almanac, which a very slight examination would have shown, seems to have been grasped at with avidity by the writer, who appears to have been not so much interested in searching for truth has in hunting for items to support his own preconceived theory. Now I deny that the ratio of natural increase in the population of the North is any greater than in that of the South—indeed, I doubt whether it is as great—and I think nobody can hesitate to come to the same conclusion, who considers that the North and Northwest are, and have been, since the revolution, the great reservoir of the tide of emigration from Europe. Of the total number of foreign-born inhabitants in the United States in 1852, 1,965,518 were in those states, while only 245,310 were in the South. Here then may be found the real cause of the greater ratio of increase there than here. A portion of this emigration helps to fill up the new states and territories, the balance to supply, in the northern states, the place of the native population moving West. Of all this enormous increase, however, not a word is said by those who undertake to compare northern and southern progress, and use the result as an argument against slavery.

I will now proceed to show, from the census tables of 1840 and 1850, that this pretended superiority in progress is either a gross error in calculation or a wilful misrepresentation of actual facts:—

NON-SLAVE-HOLDING STATES.

	1840.	1850.	Ratio of increase
Massachusetts	737,698	994,271	34 per ct.
Pennsylvania	1,724,033	2,301,681	34 "
New-York	2,428,901	3,090,022	27 "
Maine	501,793	583,232	16 "
New-Hampshire	284,574	317,831	11⅓ "
Vermont	291,948	313,466	7 "
Ohio	1,519,467	1,977,031	30 "
Illinois	476,180	858,298	80 "

SLAVE-HOLDING STATES.

	1840.	1850.	Ratio of increase
Virginia	740,808	894,149	24 per ct.
Maryland	318,114	418,763	31⅓ "
Georgia	407,695	513,083	25 "
Alabama	335,135	426,515	27 "
South Carolina	259,084	274,775	6 "
Mississippi	179,074	291,536	62⅓ "
Kentucky	590,253	770,061	30½ "
Missouri	323,888	592,176	86 nearly.
North, total	9,654,865	13,533,328	40 "
South, free	4,803,609	6,393,758	33 "
" slave	2,487,113	3,179,580	28 nearly.

I have given the above table as a complete answer to the attempt on the part of the writer to prove that, as far as the growth of population, "slavery is a barrier to progress." As he has specially referred to New-York and Virginia, and to Ohio and Kentucky, as affording a test of the bad effects of slavery, I thought it best to give a more general

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reference, to show that his selection was not a fair test. I give six northern states, whose average increase of population for the last ten years is 21 per cent.; while the six southern states I give average 28 per cent. I also set down Kentucky and Missouri against Ohio and Illinois, and show that the former average 58 per cent. increase and the latter only 55. I also give the whole free population North and South, and show that, with the addition of nearly the whole foreign population, which amounts to 11 per cent. of the whole free population of the Union, the ratio of increase in population at the North exceeds that at the South only 7 per cent. in ten years, or seven-tenths of 1 per cent. in each year. This fact would seem to afford some ground for the belief that, aside from the effect produced by foreign emigration, the ratio of natural increase is greater at the South than at the North.

But the writer, had he been really in quest of truth, could have found fairer subjects than those he selected, to test his theory that slavery is "a barrier to progress." He need not have intruded upon the domestic precincts of a foreign confederacy, when he could have found, under the shadow of his own government, a much fairer test—the island of Jamaica. Or, if disposed to wander abroad for the means of ascertaining the truth, he could have found in the imperial dominions of Faustin I. sufficient, not indeed to establish his theory, but to satisfy him of its unsoundness. Those two beautiful islands, Hayti and Jamaica, while slavery was maintained in them, increased in wealth, commerce, population and civilization. Slavery was abolished, and what followed? Wealth decreasing to poverty, commerce rapidly disappearing, population steadily diminishing, and the unfortunate negroes, who, in the language of philanthropy, had been elevated to the rank of freemen, are fast sinking into that state of barbarism from which slavery alone seems ever to have elevated them.

There never was a greater error than the theory adopted by the writer in *Blackwood's Magazine*, that "slavery is a barrier to progress." On the contrary, it is compatible with the highest degree of civilization. It prevailed three thousand years ago, when the light of science shone from the pyramids of Egypt. The history of the Athenians is a proof that it is not a barrier to progress, whether in wealth, population, knowledge or political power, for there we find the barren little territory of Attica, with an area of 730 miles only, that is, smaller than the smallest county in Alabama, supporting a population of 528,000, only 120,000 of which were free, defying and defeating the greatest power then known, Persia, sweeping the sea with her fleets from Sicily to Cyprus, and from the mouths of the Nile to the Bosphorus, and producing philosophers and historians, poets, painters and sculptors, warriors and statesmen, that for centuries had no equals. And it prevailed also when Roman energy and knowledge had subdued, and Roman civilization had enlightened half the earth, during the period which is dignified in history with the name of the Great Augustan Age. Those who contend that "slavery is a barrier to progress," are deaf to the voice of history, dead to all experience of the past, and, consequently, blind guides in the future.

MEMPHIS.—Before the appearance of our next number, the third Great Southern Improvement Convention will be held at Memphis. Having attended the first two, it is a source of great regret that we must be absent now. But pressing engagements render it imperative. We shall take pleasure, however, in furnishing to our readers the fullest material of its proceedings, the substance of its speeches, and the elaborate reports which will no doubt be offered. Success to our enterprising friends, and success to their glorious and advancing little city, connected as it is with so many of our pleasantest recollections, and promising as it does, in time, to be a very big city on the banks of the old Father of Waters—which Heaven propitiously grant!

We give a few notes in regard to the early history of the city, having already furnished the later statistics.

In 1782, the Spanish Government directed W. H. Gayno, then acting Governor of the Territory of Louisiana, to take steps to occupy this portion of the territory. Accordingly, in the spring of 1783, one Benjamin Fry, a German, and an old Indian trader, with a company of men, landed at the mouth of Wolf or False River, just above what is known as Third or Lower Chicasaw Bluff, where was erected a fort called Fort St. Fernando. After the United States Govern-

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ment came into possession of the Territory of Louisiana, Fort St. Fernando was dismantled by Lieutenant Pike, and Fort Pickering established on the lower end of the Bluff. John Overton was the original proprietor of the site of Memphis; but in 1819, he sold one undivided half to Gen. Andrew Jackson and Gen. James Winchester, who proceeded to lay out the town. Gen. Jackson says, in one of his letters, the town was laid here owing to the eligible location, and predicted that it would, in time, be the second city in the Mississippi Valley. It is making rapid strides towards the accomplishment of the prophecy, if increasing activity of every department of trade is any criterion.

NASHVILLE.—Having said a few words about Memphis, we cheerfully add others in regard to Nashville, a city which, for enterprise, spirit, wealth and refinement, has taken the highest position in the Southwest.

In 1840, the population of Nashville was 6,900; in 1850 it was 16,000; now it is estimated variously from 18,000 to 23,000, and it is probably actually about 20,000. Great changes have recently taken place in the elements of its growth. A few years ago scarcely anything was manufactured there otherwise than by hand labor. Now, various engines are throwing up their columns of black smoke in different parts of the city, and almost everything is being manufactured by improved labor-saving machinery. —A few years ago, cut stone was imported from Cincinnati. Now, the finest Italian, Tennessee and other marbles are being sawed and polished by steam and horse-power in the city, and the elegant and costly products are supplied in large quantities to purchasers at a distance.

Meantime, engine shops, planing mills, trip-hammers, car factories, wagon and plough factories, furniture shops, &c., driven by steam, with powerful and improved machinery, are springing into existence in Nashville and South Nashville, and the hundreds of skilled laborers and artisans employed in them increase the consumption of the farmers' products, and keep the masons and carpenters employed in furnishing new tenements to house them. The hotels are filled with strangers, reaching them daily by railroad or otherwise. The wholesale business of the city has probably been doubled within the last few years. The grocery business has been greatly increased. The city is now as full of population as an egg is of meat. New buildings are rapidly going up, both in the city and the suburbs, and the demand is still for more houses. Nashville, the most beautiful and pleasant city in the Mississippi Valley, has just fairly begun to grow.

ART. IX—OREGON AND THE TERRITORY OF WASHINGTON ON THE PACIFIC.

THE establishment of a new territorial government upon the Pacific out of the *old* Oregon territory is another step in the march of empire, and justifies the insertion of such facts, in regard to this portion of our possessions upon the Pacific, as can be brought within the scope of a brief paper.

In the year 1846, we published in the Review many interesting porticulars relating to Oregon, then in discussion, upon the authority of Mr. Greenbow, and upon that of many writers who had visited the country. In 1848, the territorial government of Oregon was set up by Congress, comprising all that part of the territory of the United States west of the summit of the Rocky Mountains, and north of the forty-second degree of north latitude. The celebrated "ordinance of 1787, for the government of the Northwest Territory," notwithstanding the protests of the South, was extended over it. In 1850, the statistics of Oregon, as obtained by the census, were as follows, but up to this time considerable changes have no doubt taken place:—

POPULATION OF OREGON, 1850.

	Total whites.			Total free colored.			
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Tot'l.	Aggregate.
Benton...	456..	356..	810..	1..	3..	4..	814
Clatsop..	335..	123..	458..	4..	— ..	4..	462
Blackamas.	1,106..	730..	1,836..	16..	7..	23..	1,859
Clark....	495..	97..	592..	38..	13..	51..	643
Lewis..	344..	113..	457..	49..	52..	101..	558
Linn....	557..	437..	994..	—	—	—	994
Marion..	1,603..	1,137..	2,740..	5..	4..	9.	2,749
Polk.....	575..	471..	1,046..	1..	4..	5..	1,051
Washington	1,800..	843..	2,643..	6..	3..	9..	2,652
Yarn-Hill..	867..	644..	1,511..	—	1..	1..	1,512
Total..	8,138..	4,949.	13,087...	120..	87..	207.	13,294

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INDUSTRY OF OREGON, 1850.

COUNTIES.	Acres of land in farms. Improved.	Unimp'd.	Cash value of farms.	Value of farming implements & machinery.
Benton	5,589	—	$74,545	$16,565
Clatsop	340	12,257	175,400	20
Clackamas	36,210	82.388	841,750	24,475
Clark	3.705	16,935	208,700	6,780
Lewis	13,441	35,804	274,400	12,885
Linn	6,041	—	108,425	15,445
Marion	30,211	152,567	835,750	48,834
Polk	9,341	—	63,130	18,340
Washington	13,498	—	159,160	17,620
Yarn-Hill	14,481	—	107,910	22,459
Aggregate	132,857	299,951	$2,849,170	$183,423

PRODUCTS OF OREGON, 1850.

LIVE STOCK.

Horses	8,046
Asses and mules	420
Milch cows	9,427
Working oxen	8,114
Other cattle	24,188
Sheep	15,382
Swine	30,235
Value of live stock	$1,876,189
Wheat, bushels of	211,943
Rye, " of	106
Indian Corn, bushels of	2,918
Oats, " of	65,146
Tobacco, lbs. of	325
Wool, " of	29,686
Peas and Beans, bushels of	6,566
Irish Potatoes, " of	91,326
Value of orchard products, in dollars	1,271
Value of products of market-gardens	90,241
Butter, lbs. of	211,464
Cheese, " of	36,980
Hay, tons of	373
Cloverseed, bushels of	4
Other grass seeds, bushels of	22
Hops, lbs. of	8
Flax, " of	640
Molasses, gallons of	24
Value of animals slaughtered, in dollars	164,530

There were 1,877 children attending school in 1850, and 168 marriages within the year.

On the 2d of March, 1853, an act was passed by Congress, establishing within the Territory of Oregon the "Territorial Government of Washington."

Washington Territory* comprises the northern portion of the recent Oregon territory, and is bounded on the south by the Columbia River, up to near Fort Walla-Walla, (some two hundred and ninety miles,) where the parallel of forty-six degrees of latitude intersects it; thence by this parallel to the crest of the Rocky Mountains; thence the boundary follows this mountain crest to latitude forty-nine degrees, and thence runs west on this parallel to the Gulf of Georgia and the Straits of Fuca to the Pacific, by which it is limited on the west. We derive, from a scientific and well-informed source, some particulars respecting this territory, not readily accessible to the public, which we present to our readers.

"Washington Territory" lies chiefly between latitudes 46 degrees and 49 degrees, and between longitudes 110 degrees, and 125 degrees west of Greenwich. The boundary initial points and parallels must soon be accurately determined, and it must be decided where the crest of the Rocky Mountains really is. This latter problem may not be easy of solution, for Lewis and Clark, Father de Smet, the Irving Astoria map, and the Indian Bureau and Topographical Bureau maps, all represent these mountains differently. Lewis and Clark exhibit four distinct ranges, with which the best recent explorations essentially agree; indicating at least three parallel ranges running nearly northwest, instead of the more prevalent indication of a single north and south range. Exploration may show the necessity of a more definite eastern boundary. On the north, the mouth of Frazer's River is so near to latitude 49 degrees that a portion of it may be found to fall in the United States, though this is improbable. There are thus several important geographical questions connected with the boundaries of this neophyte state.

"Washington Territory" has within its limits portions as well explored, and others as nearly unknown, as can be found west of the Mississippi. The Columbia River was thoroughly surveyed by Captain Wilkes, two sheets out of six being now published. It was surveyed by Belcher in 1839, and two sheets are published among the Admiralty charts. The Coast Survey has twice surveyed its mouth, and published one sheet. A comparison of these several surveys with Vancouver's indicates a remarkable degree of shifting in the sandbanks at its mouth. Shoalwater Bay has been surveyed by the Coast Survey, but the survey is not published. Grey's Harbor has also been just surveyed, and this, with Chickaleos River, has been surveyed, and the survey published by Captain Wilkes. The Admiralty charts cover the Straits of Fuca, and many harbors on the mainland and on Vancouver's Island.

A coast survey reconnoissance has now extended up the entire Pacific coast and along the south coast of the Straits of Fuca, and will soon be published. The surveys under Capt. Wilkes,

* From the National Intelligencer.

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and his narrative, give full information of all the group of islands in the Gulf of Georgia, and the channels leading to and making up Puget's Sound, with much detail. The shores of this wonderful network of channels are so favored in soil and location that they must soon possess great value. Through a surprising extent of line they are directly accessible for ocean vessels, and form, as it were, an immense network of harbor. They present the foundation for a kind of agricultural Venice, far into the heart of the west half of Washington, the resources of which they will greatly aid in developing. Fort Nisqually and Olympia, at the southern extremity of Puget's Sound, must rapidly advance with the growth of the territory.

The interior portion of this section is but imperfectly known. The land-office surveys north of the Columbia have as yet made but little progress; but the sketches prepared in that office give more recent and correct information than is elsewhere to be found on the section between that river and Puget's Sound. On penetrating further towards the Rocky Mountains, the country is essentially unknown. The narrative of Lewis and Clark, the book on Oregon Missions, by Father de Smet, published in New-York in 1847, and Irving's Astoria, (the last edition,) are the chief publications of value on this ground. These serve merely to show that the country bordering the Rocky Mountains, between 46 degrees and 49 degrees, on both sides, is still a fine field for exploration. Much may be expected from Dr. Evans, who is engaged in a geological reconnoissance of the old Oregon Territory, which has taken him much among the Rocky Mountains, and over their basaltic plains.

We are enabled to present the following views of the agricultural resources and wealth of Oregon, on the authority of a paper recently prepared by Jesse Applegate, a resident of the territory :—

The basin drained by the Umpqua River lies between 42½ and 43½ degrees of north latitude, is separated from the Pacific Ocean and surrounded on all other sides by a high wall of mountains. These mountains are wooded with dense and continuous forests of the evergreen, fir, pine, and cedar; their lofty peaks, steep and narrow ridges, and deep, dark chasms, will perhaps for ever defy the art of man to bring them into a state of cultivation.

To a person accustomed to the level or gently undulating surface of the western states, the term "valley" appears wholly misapplied to the Umpqua country, as the broad plains and gently-swelling hills, associated in their minds with that term, are no where to be seen. The basin, being very broken, (the narrow valleys lying between ranges of high hills,) appears, when viewed from the mountains that enclose it, to be merely a mass of hills and mountains, differing from its rim in being of less elevation, bald or timbered with oak, the evergreens only appearing in clumps on the loftiest summits, or lining the deep ravines.

There are no lakes nor marshes; the waters of the surrounding mountains rush from their dark chasms in many streams that, meandering through the valley, collect at its northwest corner, where the Umpqua River pierces the mountains, and finds its way to the ocean.

The soil is lively and rich; that of the valleys, being alluvial deposits from the hills, is a dark, deep loam, in places sandy, and based upon a red clay; the soil on the hills is dark, or light-brown, according to its depth, it being lightest where most elevated or exposed to the action of the water.

Owing to the vicinity of the Pacific Ocean, and the prevailing winds along the coast, the winters are warmer and the summers cooler than in corresponding latitudes on the Atlantic side of the continent. While the wind blows from a southerly quarter, which it generally does in winter, the weather is warm and damp, the ground seldom, if ever, freezing hard enough to kill peas or oats, or check the growth of cabbages, turnips, or other hardy plants. The mildness of the winters has most important bearing upon the agriculture of the country. As an illustration of this fact, I herewith enclose some flowers which have grown in the open air, and were this day (28th December) plucked from plants common to all parts of the Union, and familiarly known as the hollyhock, marigold, morning bridé, sweet William, and grasspink. You will perceive some of them are full-blown, and others just opening, which will show that these plants continue to produce flowers even in midwinter.

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But as the winds in summer blow from the opposite quarter, frosts frequently occur, late in the spring and early in the autumn, sufficiently severe to cut down beans, melons, and other plants of that description.

About the 1st June rain generally ceases to fall in sufficient quantities much to benefit a growing crop; and, if it fail to rain about the autumnal equinox, the drought will continue until about the 1st of November. Though the climate of Oregon is, in this particular, more uniform than that of the western states, it has also its variations; the winter sometimes being, for two or three weeks together, clear and frosty, and cloudy weather and rain sometimes occurring in summer; the present year agrees with the exception nearer than the general rule.

Markets.—Scottsburg, at the head of tide water on the Umpqua River, and twenty-five miles from the ocean, is near the southwest angle, and the shipping point for the valley; above this point the river is not navigable, and as yet there is no road leading to it passable except with horses. But the principal market for the products of the farm is found in the gold mines of the Klamath and Rogue rivers. These mines lie between the 41st and 43d degrees of north latitude, and are principally supplied from Oregon.

Wagons are sometimes used as a means of transportation as far as Shasta city; but, owing to the badness of the roads, pack animals are mainly employed.

Labor, for the summer, is worth from three to five dollars per day, and but few laborers are to be had at these prices. These circumstances, together with its recent and very rapid settlement, controlling the farming operations of this country, rude and primitive as they may appear to farmers in a more advanced condition, are yet in accordance with sound judgment and good policy, and go to show that many of the practices of our ancestors were not so much the results of ignorance as of necessity.

The immigrant arrives late in autumn at the end of an exhausting journey in a wilderness. He has first to direct his attention to the comforts of his family; their subsistence is to be procured, perhaps, from a distance, and they are to be protected from the inclemencies of winter, which is now fast approaching. Whatever his knowledge of architecture, or his ability to avail himself of the labour of others, there are no quarries of stone or kilns of brick ready to furnish material for his walls, nor machinery to prepare the wood for the completion of the edifice. Wealth cannot call these things into existence, nor here secure the services of mechanics to use them, were they to be had; and if without it, which is too often the case, so much heavier is the iron hand of necessity upon him.

Like circumstances, at all times and places, produce like results, and the pioneer here, as elsewhere, erects a log cabin as his first edifice.

The same necessity governs his first efforts in agriculture, and for one or two years there is little attention paid to the culture of anything not needed for his own subsistence. And it must be borne in mind that but few of the settlers are yet prepared to avail themselves of the natural advantages of the country, or to turn their attention exclusively to those branches of agriculture that the markets and means of transportation make most profitable; which subjects I shall now proceed to notice.

Grasses of nutritious quality cover the whole country; that of the hills being varieties of the buck grass, or festuca, common to all the elevated regions of Oregon. The valleys produce a ranker growth and greater variety, among which may be mentioned a valuable clover. The excellence and abundance of these grasses, which, from the mildness of the climate, continue their growth through the winter, make the country, to all grazing animals, a natural home.

Horses, Cattle, Sheep and Hogs, are free from disease—always in good condition; and beef, mutton, and pork, of superior quality, are at all seasons slaughtered that never received either food or shelter at the hand of man.

Besides the surface and climate, which must ever mark it as a grazing country, there are many temporary and local causes to encourage the raising of animals at present.

Horses and Mules.—As horses and mules are extensively used in the carrying business, they are in good demand; $100 being about the average price of Indian and Mexican breeds, fit for service; and those of the United States

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rate much higher—good horses and mules bringing double that rate.

Cattle are also in good demand, as bullocks can carry themselves to market, and gather their food by the way; and butter and cheese are articles in which, with Oregon, no country can compete.

Bullocks, on foot, rate from six to ten cents per pound, the price depending on the tractability of the animal in being herded and driven. Spanish stock, $15 to $25 per head, according to training. Tame cows, with calves, $50 to $100. Butter, 75 cents; cheese, 50 cents per pound.

Sheep are not valued for their wool, though there are now in the country some of the best wool-bearing breeds. The short, sweet grass and pure air of the mountain pastures encourage a remarkable fecundity and fatness in the animal. Young lambs are being added to the flock in every month of the year. It is not uncommon for a mutton to yield 20 pounds of tallow; while the flesh, for fineness of flavor and texture, is nowhere exceeded. Mutton is a convenient article of food at home, as well as in the mines. Salt provisions being little used, an ordinary family, even in summer, will consume a mutton while it is still sweet and fresh.

Hogs, as yet, succeed well, but it is probable their food will first cease to be produced spontaneously. The mast-bearing trees are few in number and variety, black oak and hazel comprising the whole. The clover and nutritious roots of the valleys being their principal dependence, besides their own tendency to destroy, each field put in cultivation directly diminishes their pastures. Their flesh being not much eaten at home, they are mostly made into bacon, and in that shape are a valuable item in the trade to the mines. Stock hogs, 8 to 10 cents per pound; pork, fresh, 10 to 12, and bacon, 25 to 50 cents per pound.

Hereafter, when the number of grazing animals approaches more nearly to the capacity of the country to maintain them, the danger which may be apprehended to this branch of the business is, that grasses starting up with the first rains of autumn continue their growth through the winter, and ripen about midsummer, and, except on damp places, remain dry until rain in sufficient quantity again falls to renew its growth. In the dry, or hay state, it is liable to be burnt off; and when such an accident happens, and the rains are late in falling, and are followed, as is sometimes the case, with cold, rainy weather, and even snow, the scarcity produced by the fire will be prolonged through the winter, which must result in a ruinous loss to such farmers as are unprepared to meet it with food for their animals. Such was the case in Willamette, in the winters of 1846—'47 and 1848—'49, in which hundreds of animals perished of starvation.

Crops.—On the dry lands, any crop ripening by midsummer succeeds well. Wheat, peas, oats, barley, &c., are cultivated for home consumption. The want of mills and labor-saving machines, and the price of labor, discourage their cultivation as articles of export.

Vegetables.—such as maize, potatoes, cabbages, &c., requiring the whole summer to perfect them—will some seasons succeed without irrigation; but, as the crop is liable to be cut short by drought, usually a spot naturally damp, or that can be easily irrigated, is selected for the kitchen-garden.

The mode of culture is simple and primitive. The emigrant, who has arrived too late for fall-ploughing, in early spring turns over the green sward of the prairie, with a huge, clumsy plough, drawn by oxen. On this he sows his crop of spring-wheat, peas, or oats, and harrows it in with a wooden harrow or a scragged tree-top; the first, if a spring-crop, yields from 10 to 25 bushels per acre, being varied by the manner and time of setting the crop and the continuance of the rains. If sufficient rain falls about the autumnal equinox, which is generally the case, fall wheat is sown; but if this should not happen, it creates no uneasiness, as the crop may be set at any time until March without any perceivable difference in the yield, and but little in the time of ripening. It is common, however, to sow more seed on late sowings.

The yield of the fall crop, though affected by the same causes, is more uniform and abundant than that of the spring, and from 20 even to 50 bushels of wheat are harvested per acre. The rotation of crops, though doubtless here of as much advantage as elsewhere, is attended with one serious inconvenience, the frosts of winter being insufficient to

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destroy peas or oats. Wheat, if following a crop of either, is frequently choked and intermixed with their voluntary growth; and oats particularly are very injurious. The same result also follows in sowing in fall after a spring crop, —the two kinds of wheat become intermixed, to the injury of both. At the time of harvest, the weather is usually dry and pleasant. Wheat and oats are cut with a cradle, and peas pulled by hand. There being no barns, a clayey spot is made smooth and hard by being dampened and beaten with mauls, or tramped with animals. Around it a high, strong fence is made, and over it those fond of the shade throw a few bushes. On this "floor" the grain is laid regularly, the heads pointing obliquely upward. A wild skittish band of horses are turned in and driven against the bristling heads of the grain, and, by their scampering, in a very short time the wheat is threshed from the straw, and much of the straw itself broken to pieces, much more time being required to separate and remove it from the grain than is occupied in threshing. Leaving the bottom undisturbed to the last, as it is sometimes dirty, the threshed grain is pushed to the centre, and another floor laid down; and so on until the crop is threshed.

Formerly we depended upon the sea breeze, which springs up each evening, to separate the wheat from the chaff; but now, as we can obtain fanning-mills at $100 each, most of the farmers have provided themselves with these modern inventions. Of the whole list of vegetables and fruits found in the temperate zone, there is scarceiy one that may not here find its favorite soil, and, with a little attention, be adapted to the climate; and in the vegetable market, having no foreign competition, the farmers have the greatest encouragement to engage.

In regard to prices, it must be borne in mind that three-fourths of the inhabitants of Umpqua are immigrants of the present year, who must be fed, and furnished with seed—that, within the same time, the newly-discovered mines of the north have attracted between ten and twenty thousand persons, whose supplies are drawn from Oregon principally; and, as the roads are bad and transportation expensive, Umpqua, being the nearest farming district to the mines, has had a decided advantage over other parts of the country.

But the very means which have given the farmers of Umpqua great advantages in the market will tend to make them of short duration; because a portion of the country embraced in the northern mines is well adapted to the purposes of cultivation, and much more of it affords fine pasturing.

The grazing in the neighborhood of Shasta city is excellent, and a fine yield of both potatoes and gold may be dug from the same plat of ground; and, as the price for which vegetables, butter, and cheese are sold in the mines must be enormous, it is a profitable business to pay high prices for them here and carry them 200 or three hundred miles on the backs of animals. Many have exchanged the pick and shovel of the miner for the implements of husbandry, and farms and dairies are being established in the very heart of the mines themselves.

The peaceful relations which have at last been established with the Indians of Rogue River, will also have their influence, as they have opened to the farmer a valley surrounded by mountains rich in gold, remarkable for its health, beauty, and agricultural capacities; and as the distance from the ports of the Pacific, and the extremely rough and mountainous country lying between, will make transportation always difficult and expensive, the northern mines may shortly be independent of commerce, except for groceries and manufactured articles. When the mines cease to consume the agricultural products of Umpqua, it is difficult to foresee what other market will be found, or what will be the effect upon the pursuits of the inhabitants. The great natural advantages of the country and the nearness of the market, are overbalauced by the high prices of labor, difficulties of transportation, and want of machinery; and, until great changes in the prices of labor and improvements take place in the other obstacles, we cannot compete with Chili and the Atlantic States in the provision trade of the Pacific. These things considered, though there is perhaps not one farmer in a hundred discontented or desirous to exchange his home in Oregon for the one he left in the States, I do not think a greater proportion of the prudent would advise their friends who are well and comfortably settled in the

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States to exchange the many comforts and advantages they now enjoy, and perform the arduous and dangerous journey over the plains, for the certain privations and uncertain advantages of a home in the wilderness.

ART. X.—HOME AND FOREIGN COMMERCE.

UNITED STATES MINT STATISTICS SINCE 1790—MISSISSIPPI BONDS—COINAGE LAW OF 1852—SILVER COIN—STATISTICS OF COTTON TRADE—MASSACHUSETTS RAILROAD, BANK AND FACTORY STOCKS—COMMERCE, WILMINGTON, N. C.—CANADIAN CURRENCY.

OPERATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES MINT.—The coinage at the principal mint, during the year 1852, amounted to $52,403,669 44; of which $51,505,638 50 were in gold, $847,410 in silver, and 50,630 94 in copper. This coinage was comprised in 32,612,949 pieces—being the largest number ever before struck at the mint in a single year. The deposits received were $50,874,131 in gold, and $952,297 in silver; making a total of $51,826,428.

The coinage at the branch mint, New Orleans, amounted to $4,622,000; of which $4,470,000 were in gold, and $152,000 in silver. The number of pieces struck was 1,418,000. The deposits were $3,935,668 in gold, and $118,694 in silver; total $4,054,362.

The coinage of the branch mint, Charlotte, North Carolina, amounted to $396,734 in gold—comprised in 91,780 pieces. The deposits were $430,900 in gold.

The coinage of the branch mint, Dahlonega, Georgia, amounted to $473,815 in gold—comprised in 101,890 pieces. The deposits were $476,789 in gold.

The total coinage at the four mints was $57,896,218 44; of which there was—in gold $56,846,187 50, in silver $999,410, and in copper $50,630 94. This coinage was comprised in 34,224,619 pieces.

The total amount deposited for coinage was $56,788,479; of which there was in gold, $55,717,488, and in silver, $1,070,991.

The deposits of gold received from mines in the United States amounted to $54,506,963; of which there was from California the sum of $53,794,700; from other states of the Union, $712,263. During the year 1851, the amount of gold received from California was $55,938,232; from other states, $602,380; total domestic gold, $56,540,612. Hence it appears that the receipts from California in 1852 fell short of those in 1851 by $2,143,532. while those from other states of the Union were increased by $109,883.

The coinage of three-cent pieces amounted to $559,905, which was 56 per cent. of the total coinage of silver. The demand for this piece has not been due to its intrinsic importance in currency, but to the fact that it is the only one whose proportionate value to gold allows of its issue from the mint, under present laws. The necessity of some legislation, which, by readjusting the proportionate weights of the gold and silver coins, shall admit of the issue and permanent circulation of the latter, is becoming every day more imperative.

SUMMARY EXHIBIT OF THE COINAGE OF THE MINTS TO THE CLOSE OF 1852.

MINTS.	Commencement of coinage.	Gold coinage. Value.	Silver Coinage. Value.	Copper coinage. Value.	Entire coinage. In pieces.	Entire coinage. In value.
Philadelphia	1793	$194,876,142 00	$65,795,018 90	$1,446,457 39	385,078,778	$262,117,618 29
New-Orleans	1838	33,885,865 00	13,166,800 00	—	44,545,145	47,052,665 00
Charlotte	1838	3,450,668 50	—	—	837,788	3,450,668 50
Dahlonega	1838	4,817,809 50	—	—	1,093,685	4,817,809 50
Total		$237,030,485 00	$78,961,818 90	$1,446,457 39	431,555,396	$317,438,761 29

MISSISSIPPI BONDS.—We wish that some citizen of the state would prepare for our pages a full history of the bonds question, with all the arguments *pro* and *con* in regard to it. We are anxious for such a paper, and it would do much good. At present, we can only furnish a few statistics from a writer in the Bankers' Magazine:

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Statement of the Planters' Bank Bonds, issued by the State of Mississippi.

1831. July 1. 500 bonds, $1000 each, payable July 1, 1841,	$500,000
1833. March 1. 500 bonds, $1000 each, payable March 1, 1861 (twenty-eight years),	500,000
1833. March 1. 500 bonds, $1000 each, payable March 1, 1866 (thirty-three years),	500,000
1833. March 1. 500 bonds, $1000 each, payable March 1, 1871 (thirty-eight years),	500,000
Total bonds issued,	$2,000,000
Interest to 1854.	
Interest on first issue of $500,000, from July 1, 1840, to July 1, 1854 (fourteen years),	420,000
Interest on the bonds, dated March 1, 1833, $1,500,000, from September 1, 1840, to September 1, 1854, (fourteen years),	1,260,000
	3,680,000
Deduct bonds paid by the state, $88,000	
And interest, 73,920	
	161,920
Balance, principal and interest, due 1854,	$3,518,080

In addition to this debt of $3,518,080, the State of Mississippi is indebted in the sum of $5,000,000 for bonds issued to the Union Bank of Mississippi in 1838, and for the interest ($300,000) that has annually accumulated for the last twelve years.

The whole revenue of the state at this period does not exceed $225,000 annually, although the census shows a population of about 600,000 persons within its limits.

The Planters' Bank of Mississippi was chartered in the year 1830, with a capital of three millions of dollars, and by the first clause in that charter, the amount of two millions of that stock was reserved for the state, and the remaining one million for individual subscription. The books were regularly opened and the stock subscribed accordingly.

The bonds of the state were issued—the first five hundred thousand dollars (500,000) on the 1st July, 1831, and payable ten years after date.

The remaining fifteen hundred thousand dollars were issued on the 1st March, 1833, and payable as follows:

Five hundred thousand dollars 1st March, 1861,	$500,000
Five hundred thousand dollars 1st March, 1866,	500,000
Five hundred thousand dollars 1st March, 1871,	500,000

All of them bearing interest at six per cent. per annum. Commissioners were appointed to negotiate the bonds, who succeeded in doing so at a premium of thirteen and one-quarter per cent. (13¼), so that after paying two millions to the Planters' Bank, the state had left, and after defraying all expenses attending the negotiation, the sum of two hundred and fifty thousand dollars ($250,000). This sum was placed in the Planters' Bank as a sinking fund, and was to be added to by the dividends of the bank on the state stock, from which fund money was to be drawn semi-annually to pay the interest on the state bonds.

The bank's dividends averaged ten per cent. for a number of years, and the interest on the bonds was regularly paid up to 1st of September, 1839, when the state stock in the Planters' Bank was transferred to the Natchez Railroad Company. At this period the "Sinking Fund," created by the dividends on the stock over what was required to pay the interest on the state bonds, reached nearly eight hundred thousand dollars. This fund belonged to the state, and, under the charter of the bank, was controlled by the auditor of the state, and president and cashier of the bank. A very large portion of this fund was lost by the general bankruptcy of 1836–39; what was left of it, however, was taken possession of by a commissioner appointed by the state, who received, with the bills receivable, about sixty thousand dollars in cash. This money is now in the state treasury, together with about an equal sum collected by the commissioner since the fund was transferred. What disposition is to be made of the funds remains to be seen.

CALCULATION UPON PAYING $250,000 ANNUALLY, FOR TWENTY-TWO YEARS, IN LIQUIDATION OF THE PLANTERS' BANK BONDS.

Am't of bonds outstanding in 1854.	Annual int. thereafter.	Total am't of int. up to 1854.	Annual appropriation from 1854.	Years.
$1,912,000	$114,720	$1,606,080	$250,000	1854
1,912,000	114,720	1,470,800	250,000	1855
1,912,000	114,720	1,335,520	250,000	1856

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Calculation of the Planters' Bank Bonds, continued.

Am't of bonds outstanding in 1854.	Annual int. thereafter.	Total am't of int. up to 1854.	Annual appropriation from 1854.	Years.
$1,912,000....	$114,720..	$1,200,240..	$250,000..	1857
1,912,000....	114,720..	1,064,960..	250,000..	1858
1,912,000....	114,720..	929,680..	250,000..	1859
1,912,000....	114,720..	794,400..	250,000..	1860
1,912,000....	114,720..	659,120..	250,000..	1861
1,912,000....	114,720..	523,840..	250,000..	1862
1,912,000....	114,720..	388,560..	250,000..	1863
1,912,000....	114,720..	253,280..	250,000..	1864
1,912,000....	114,720..	118,000..	250,000..	1865
1,895,000....	113,700..	—	250,280..	1866
1,759,000....	105,540..	—	250,580..	1867
1,614,000	96,840..	—	250,040..	1868
1,461,000....	87,660 .	—	250,200..	1869
1,299,000....	77,940..	—	250,540..	1870
1,127,000....	67,620..	—	250,600..	1871
945,000....	56,700..	—	250,980..	1872
751,000....	45,060..	—	250,280..	1873
546,000....	32,760..	—	250,220..	1874
329,000....	19,740..	—	250,460..	1875
99,000	5,940..	—	104,940..	1876

THE NEW COINAGE LAW OF UNITED STATES.*—In our last number we gave the official notice of the purchase of silver by the department, for the manufacture of the new silver coin for circulation. The notice indicated that those South American and Mexican coins which approached nearest to the United States standard, together with the thalers of Northern Germany, the mint will buy at $1.21 per ounce.

The leading provisions of the coinage bill are, first: the weight of the coin is to be reduced from 206¼ grains per half dollar to 192 grains—that is to say, 7 per cent.

The government alone deposits silver for coinage.

Not over $5 in silver to be a legal tender.

Depositors of gold may have it cast into ingots of standard fineness, of weights from one to five ounces, without extra charge. If coined, half per cent. seignorage is charged.

With the establishment of an assay office in New-York, where these ingots may be assayed and cast, at one quarter per cent. less than coin, in addition to the saving of the expense and delay of sending to Philadelphia, a considerable margin will be established in favor of exporting ingots rather than coin, amounting to a premium upon exporting the gold rather than using it as a currency. The effect of this is to increase the demand for silver. It is obvious that the great demand for circulation which everywhere exists, arises from the large production of goods and merchandise, the activity of trade and improved prices. California and Australia have both required large supplies of coin, and these have been drawn from England and the United States. The demand for silver was naturally more urgent than for gold, because being of lower denominations it enters more into practical currency than the dearer metals. Hence, gold dollars and quarter eagles have aided much in the absence of silver. To impose a seignorage upon the coinage of these pieces is to enhance the demand for silver. This demand the government has now begun to supply, and so by out-bidding every body else for the raw material. Thus, Mexican dollars have been worth 4 to 4¼ per ct. premium. The mint offers 5 per cent. For other coin that was worth 3 to 3½ premium, the government offers 4 per cent., paying either in gold or new silver coin, at the option of the holder. The operation is thus, for 480 grs., or one ounce, of standard silver, the government gives $1.21, or for 100 ounces, $121, and pays in depreciated silver coin, as follows:

At $1 21 per 100 ounces.....	grs. 48,000
Payment in silver halves, at 192 grains.....	46,464
Gain to government.....	grs. 1,536

This is an odd way of paying a *premium*—viz., taking a quantity of silver and giving back a less quantity; but the holder of the silver can do better.

There is no doubt but that the new coin on their first appearance will command a premium, as gold dollars and three cent pieces did for a short time.

If, however, the government should pay in gold, the depositor will, indeed, have an advantage of the one-half per cent. coinage over the person who deposits gold to be coined. It is also the case that the mint will now pay out to depositors of gold, the silver which belongs to them. The silver in these deposits averages about four-fifths of one per cent., and the whole amount was returned in gold, the mint reserving the silver bullion to itself. The rule established at the mint was, that depositors of mixed bullion should receive the return in the description which constitutes its principal value. There would be no hardship in this, if the market value of gold and silver coin agreed with the legal value as recognized by the mint. But this is not the case. For instance, a certain bank in Wall-street deposits

* From United States Economist.

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every two weeks in the mint about $400,000 in bullion; from this there is parted $3,500 in silver, and the balance is gold. The bank is then paid in gold coin, the mint reserving the silver, although it charges the bank the whole cost of parting it. The bank had then to take the gold coin and *purchase* silver coin for its own use at the counter, at a premium of 3 to 4 per cent. This involved a loss to the bank of, say $122.50 on every deposit. This is now changed, and the mint will pay out the silver to the rightful owner.

The demand which has existed for silver currency has been more marked in those countries where silver is the exclusive standard, than here, where issues of small gold coins and small bank-notes have, by supplanting it in circulation, aided to drive it out. The import and export of the metals from 1821 to 1852, inclusive, have been as follows:

IMPORT AND EXPORT OF PRECIOUS METALS IN U. S. FROM 1821 TO 1852, INCLUSIVE.

	Import.	Export.	Excess import
Gold bullion.	$6,913,079..	$533,591.	$6,379,488
Gold coin....	92,281,169..	41,351,692.	51,929,477
Total gold.....	$99,194,248..	$41,885,283.	$58,296,965
Silver bullion.	11,024,401..	1,170,796.	9,853,605
Silver coin....	163,188,117..	140,607,617.	22,580,500
Total silver..	$174,212,518.	$141,778,413.	$32,434,105

The excess of silver imports for the whole term does not apply to the last few years—as follows:

IMPORT AND EXPORT OF SILVER.

	1821 to 1842.	1842 to 1848.	1848 to 1853.	Total.
Import.....	$140,529,748	$21,466,664	$12,216,106	$174,212,518
Export.....	104,395,582	15,981,751	20,401,080	141,778,413
Excess import.....	$35,134,166	$5,484,913	.....	$31,434,105
Excess export.....	.....	.....	$8,184,974	

Hence, since the discovery of gold, the current of silver has been outward in the extent of over $8,000,000, because the increased demand for circulation abroad has not, as in the United States, been met by a supply of small notes and gold pieces. We are now to export gold ingots, in place of those eagles which, to a very considerable extent, returned into the country in the pockets of immigrants, from whom a demand exists for them in the European ports. The ingots will probably return, if they return at all only in the shape of foreign coin. Thus the gold coinage of France for 1851, was from the following material:

COINAGE AT THE FRENCH MINT, PARIS, 1851.

	Francs. c.
Value of the gold coinage	241,382,772 22
Value of the silver coinage	57,249,908 65
Total of the silver coinage	298,632,680 87
Details of the Gold Coinage.	
Dutch florins	74,865,304 67
American eagles	37,819,312 98
Russian imperials	30,406,320 26
English sovereigns	8,283,372 85
Prussian thalers	1,651,961 32
Ingots and sundry coins	88,356,500 14
Total of gold	241,382,772 22
Details of the Silver Coinage.	
Piastres	10,135,873 52
Kreutzers	3,998,796 76
Ingots and sundry coins	43,115,238 37
Total of silver	57,249,908 65

The Dutch florins were furnished by the calling in of the gold currency of Holland, and substituting silver. The American eagles figured next in importance; but, henceforth, probably "ingots" will embrace American gold. The comparative coinage of France, England, and the United States, for 1851, was as follows:

	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
France.....	$48,276,650..	$11,449,980..	$59,726,530
G. Britain...	21,121,972	424,766	21,556,738
U. States....	62,614,492	774,397	63,388,889
Total...	$123,013,114..	$12,649,143..	$144,672,158

The coinage in England was doubled in 1852, with a simultaneous great decrease of coin in bank; and this fact has led to the question of the expediency of imposing a seignorage upon coinage, with the view of preventing the English mint from manufacturing coin for all the world. This seems to be a short-sighted notion. If the coins of any country are exported to such an extent as to enter into the currencies of other nations with which it deals, it follows that, with the turn in exchanges, the remittances to it will be made in its own coin—a most desirable form. The want of a mint in the United States for many years operated in favor of England. When exchanges were in favor of the United States, English sovereigns came here and remained in bank vaults until the exchanges carried them back, in many cases without even having been opened.

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SILVER COIN.—The scarcity of silver coin in England has been brought to the notice of the Chancellor of the Exchequer by a Parliamentary inquiry. He stated in reply that the demand for gold was so pressing that there was no chance of their being able to apply the mint to silver coinage. Half a million sovereigns per week were now being turned out; that was to say, about twice as much as was supposed to be the regular work of the mint, and means were being taken to increase that supply in order to meet the demand for sovereigns, of the diminution of which there was no immediate prospect. With respect to silver, something he hoped had been done to mitigate that demand. During January £92,000 of silver coinage was struck, which was a very considerable amount, and the Government was not given to suppose that the want was now extreme; but at all events more would be done to meet that want as soon as the demand for gold would allow.

The *London Economist* of March 5th, contained an interesting article on the operation of the British mint, from which we glean the following pertinent facts and figures. Since 1848, the aggregate coinage of the mint has been £19,838,375, of which £19,264,473 was gold, £561,594 was silver, and £12,308 copper. The disparity of silver coinage is apparent at a glance.

The coinage of gold each year was as follows:—

1848	£2,451,999
1849	2,177,955
1850	1,491,836
1851	4,400,411
1852	8,742,270

The silver coinage has amounted to £561,594 in the five years, in the following proportion in each year:—

1848	£35,442
1849	119,592
1850	129,096
1851	87,868
1852	189,596

The large amount of silver coinage during the last year, compared with any former year, at least shows that the great inconvenience which has been experienced from a scarcity of silver coin has not arisen from any decline in the work of the mint, notwithstanding the great additional work which it has been called upon to perform in furnishing gold coin.

Of the entire £19,264,437 of gold coined in the five years, no less than £13,142,681 was coined in the two last years. The transactions of the mint have assumed a new and novel character since the recent gold discoveries. Its operations are no longer limited to the supply of the home demand for circulation. In about two years a sum equal to nearly £15,000,000 has been exported in the shape of English coin. No doubt a considerable portion, probably not less than one-half, of the whole of this large amount, fully equal to the other half, has been exported to various foreign countries, where English sovereigns have acquired a certain value as a circulating medium, and where, therefore, they have a somewhat higher price than bar gold. In view of this state of things, the *Economist* thinks the character and functions of the mint will be entirely changed; and in such a way as will render it imperative that the principles upon which its expenses are defrayed should be reconsidered. If the mint is to become a great manufactory of coins for various foreign countries, as it has been during the last two years, it will soon become obvious that there is no good reason why the people of England should continue to defray the cost of that establishment. It will become a matter of serious consideration whether that cost should not be defrayed by a charge on the coin equivalent at least to its amount.

STATISTICS OF THE COTTON TRADE.—We are indebted to H. C. Beach and Co., Commission Merchants, of New-York, for some very valuable statistical charts relating to the fluctuations in prices of raw material and manufactured goods during the last and previous years. The charts are on the plan of those now being applied to life statistics, etc., and give, through the eye, a ready aid to the understanding. We copy the following tables, which will be of great use to planters and merchants.

Fair Upland Cotton.—Average price in New-York for 1847, 11.67 cents; 1848, 7.14 cents; 1849, 8.97 cents; 1850, 13.65 cents; 1851, 11.04 cents; 1852, 10.17 cents. Average price for the above six years, 10.44.

Heavy Brown Sheetings.—Average price in New-York for 1847, 8.00 cents; 1848, 6.84 cents; 1849, 6.68 cents; 1850, 7.81 cents; 1851, 7.11 cents; 1852, 7.05 cents. Average for above 6 years, 7.25.

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Heavy Brown Drillings.—Average price in New-York for 1847, 8.32 cents; 1848, 7.03 cents; 1849, 6.84 cents; 1850, 7.94 cents; 1851, 7.77 cents; 1852, 7.48 cents. Average price for the above six years, 7.56.

Printing Cloths.—Average price in New-York of 60 by 64 picks, for 1847, 5.75 cents; 1848, 4.11 cents; 1849, 4.33 cents; 1850, 4.94 cents; 1851, 4.35 cents; 1852, 4.45 cents. Average price for the above six years, 4.66.

In the first column of the following table, we assume prices, *in sterling*, for cotton in the port of Liverpool. In the other columns we quote prices, *in our currency*, at which cotton may be shipped from the ports of New-York, Charleston, Mobile, and New-Orleans, and if sold in Liverpool, at the assumed prices, there will be neither profit nor loss to the shipper.

Prices in Liverp'l.	Prices when shipp'd from New-York.	Prices when shipp'd from Charleston.	Prices when shipp'd from Mobile.	Prices when shipp'd from N.-Orleans.
d.	*c.*	*c.*	*c.*	*c.*
5	8.25	7.94	7.50	7.50
5¼	8.75	8 44	8	8
5⅜	9 28	8.94	8.50	8.50
5¾	9.75	9.44	9	9
6	10.25	9.94	9.50	9.50
6¼	10.75	10.44	10	10
6⅜	11.25	10.94	10.50	10.50

In the above calculations, the cotton is supposed to be sold during the first month's storage, the exchange at the average rates, and freights at New-York, ¼d.; at Charleston, ⅜d.; at Mobile and New-Orleans, ⅝d.; with the addition of the usual shipping charges, at the several ports named above.

MASSACHUSETTS RAIL-ROAD—BANKS AND FACTORY STOCKS.—The *Boston Post* contains a table of the monthly quotations of stocks known to that market; from that we take the following, which shows the comparative rise in bank, manufacturing, and railroad stocks, for the past year, together with dividends for the year:

RAIL-ROADS.	Par.	Jan. 1st. 1852.	Jan. 1st. 1853.	Div.
Boston, Concord & Montreal	100	35	44	6½
Boston and Lowell	500	530	530	6½
Boston and Maine	100	102	106	7
Boston and Providence	100	84	88	5½
Boston and Worcester	100	98	103	7
Cheshire, (pref.)	100	—	55	5
Concord	50	51	54	8
Connecticut River	100	55	60	4
Eastern	100	95	95	6½
Eastern, N. H	100	95	96	6¾
Fall River	100	98	104	8
Fitchburg	100	103	102	6
Hartford & N. H	100	121	131	10
Long Island	50	7	15	—
Manchester & Law	100	85	101	7
Michigan Central	100	95	103	8
Nashua and Lowell	100	104	108	8
Norfolk County	100	13	56	—
Northern	100	64	59	5
Norwich & Worcester	100	52	53	4
Ogdensburg	50	26	30	—
Old Colony	100	64	78	—
Passumpsic	100	63	50	4
Portland and Saco	100	98	100	6
Reading	50	29	49	6
Rochester and Syracuse	100	112	125	10
Rutland, (old)	100	35	36	—
Rutland 8 per cent., pref.	100	77	89	8
Rutland 6 per cent., pref.	100	—	65	3
South Shore	25	15	9	3
Sullivan	100	15	12	—
Vermont Central	50	25	18	—
Vermont and Can	100	98	105	8
Vermont and Mass	100	25	20	—
Western	100	99	101	6½
Wilmington	50	29	38	4
Worcester & Nashua	100	51	61	4½
MANUFACTURING STOCKS.				
Amoskeag	1000	870	1185	7
Appleton	1000	650	945	6
Atlantic	1000	600	945	3
Bay State	1000	800	900	5
Boott Mills	1000	830	1030	7
Bost'n & Sand Glass Co.	100	123	123	6
Chickopee	1000	450	500	—
Cocheco	650	475	500	8
Dwight	1000	600	870	6
Great Falls	200	185	215	6
Hamilton	1000	700	1000	7
Hamilton Woolen	100	62	85	3
Jackson	800	600	650	—
Laconia	1000	675	1000	8
Lancaster Mills	450	328	360	6
Lawrence	1000	700	980	7
Lowell	600	450	500	2
Lowell Bldg	200	200	260	10
Lowell Mach. Shop	500	275	425	3
Massachusetts Mills	1000	675	1045	6
Merrimac	1000	1120	1300	10
Manchester	1000	1020	800	—
Middlesex	1000	750	825	3
Nashua	500	380	465	6
New-England Glass Co.	500	520	660	10
N. England Worsted Co.	100	48	26	—
Otis	1000	850	1000	7
Palmer	1000	600	650	—
Perkins	1000	600	735	3
Salisbury	1000	1100	1020	6
Stark Mills	1000	600	930	6
Suffolk	1000	665	1025	4
Thorndike	1000	500	800	
Tremont	1000	500	900	3
York	1000	800	1000	6
BOSTON BANKS.				
Atlantic	100	108	113	8
Atlas	100	101	107	7
Blackstone	100	97	109	7
Boston	50	55	58	8
Boylston	100	107	117	9
City	100	102	107	7
Cochit'ate	100	98	103	8
Columbian	100	100	105	6⅜
Commerce	100	99	108	8
Eagle	100	103	108	7
Exchange	100	104	110	8
Faneuil Hall	100	97	108	7
Freeman's	100	109	114	9
Globe	100	109	115	8
Granite	100	101	108	8
Grocers'	100	100	109	8
Hamilton	100	100	114	8
Market	70	84	88	10
Massachusetts	250	250	260	6

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Banks.	Par.	Jan. 1st.—1852.	1853.	Div.
Mechanics'	100	103	112	8
Merchants'	100	108	113	8
New-England	100	108	114	8
North	100	100	106	7
North America	100	100	109	8
Shawmut	100	105	111	8
Shoe and L. Dealer's	100	110	113	8
State	60	62	64	6⅔
Suffolk	100	136	133	10
Traders'	100	99	107	7⅓
Tremont	100	107	113	8
Union	100	108	113	8
Washington	100	100	105	6⅔

There has been a very general rise in all descriptions of these stocks, and in manufacturing investments the advance seems to be higher than the actual dividends warrant, but probably there has been an improvement in the value of the stocks, through rise in property, on the books of the companies.

Home and Foreign Commerce of Wilmington, N. C., for 1852, (January to December inclusive.)—The facts and statistics included were collected by a retired merchant of Wilmington.

EXPORTS.

Lumber, feet	32,336,889
Timber, feet	3,409,016
Spirits turpentine, bbls	96,843
Turpentine, "	96,667
Rosin, "	339,200
Tar, "	19,659
Pitch, "	7,806
Peanuts, bushels	93,255
Cotton goods, bales	4,136
Value of coastwise exports	$3,991,561 83
" of foreign "	549,107 74
Total	$4,540,669 57

The following additional information is appended.

There are 23 stationary engines, amount of power not ascertained.

We have 7 steam saw mills, and 2 planing mills, capital invested about $275,000. These saw in a year over 30 millions feet of lumber, and dress about 4½ millions do.

There are 10 distilleries working about 25 stills, capital invested probably $100,000. These use in the course of a year about 150,000 bbls. turpentine.

The banking capital employed here is $1,150,000. The Commercial has sought an increase of capital, and a charter for a new bank is asked of the Legislature. One or the other of these objects should be attained.

The Wilmington and Raleigh Rail-road cost over $2,500,000. The capital invested by the people of this town is about $500,000. It is in excellent condition, equal to any road in the country, the great highway for the travel, north and south, and for the last two years has declared a dividend of six per cent.

The Wilmington and Manchester Road will cost $1,800,000, capital invested by Wilmington $500,000. It is in course of rapid construction, and when completed will largely add to the trade and prosperity of this place.

Our citizens have likewise invested $138,000 in the capital stock of the North Carolina Rail-road, which is being pressed forward to completion, and which it is expected will likewise contribute to the growing trade and importance of this town, by emptying into its limits a portion of the resources of our western counties.

The Deep River Improvement has a capital of $320,000 dollars, of which $30,000 are owned by citizens of our town. The Legislature has recently appropriated $80,000 for the relief of this enterprise, and its early and thorough completion is looked forward to with anxiety. Should this improvement meet the confident anticipations of its friends, a new impulse will be added to our commercial operations. It is expected that the vast deposits of our coal regions, ascertained to be inexhaustible and of all qualities, will, by means of the navigation of the Cape Fear and Deep rivers, find an outlet here, thus opening a new source of wealth, the future results of which cannot lightly be estimated.

There is a plank road in course of construction from this town eastwardly towards Onslow.

There are 9 steam and 20 tow-boats plying between Fayetteville and Wilmington, absorbing a capital of $110,000. Two new steamers have been contracted for at a cost of $32,000, one of which (a passenger boat) has recently arrived. There are, in addition to these, 4 steamers carrying the U. S. mail daily to and from Charleston and this place, 2 steamboats of light capacity, 2 tow-boats for carrying vessels to sea, and 1 additional, nearly completed, making on the river in all 19 steamboats.

There are three rice mills, one extensive, steam, and 2 propelled by water.

We have 2 marine railways of ample power.

The average rice crop, yearly, is about 180,000 bushels, worth 80 cents per bushel. The rice is said to be the best in the world.

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The population of this town exceeds, it is estimated, 9,000 persons.

The number of vessels, their denomination, and nation, that have entered our port during the last year, are as follows: 1 American ship, 36 do. barques, 189 do. brigs, 482 do. schooners, 2 British barques, 25 do. brigs, 5 do. schooners, 3 Dutch galliots, 2 Hanoverian brigs, 1 Oldenburg barque, 2 Bremen barques, 2 do. brigs, 1 do. schooner, 1 Hanoverian schooner, 1 Dutch schooner.—Total, 753. These are exclusive of N. C. coasters, and of the line of steamers to Charleston, which arrive daily, and which may be set down at between 1,000 and 1,100 additional. The number of men employed and tonnage we have been unable to ascertain in time for this publication.

There is a dredging boat in operation on the river; there are sundry threshing machines, machine shops, brick yards, &c., &c., which it is deemed unnecessary to enumerate.

RECEIPTS OF COTTON BY RAIL-ROAD AT VICKSBURG.

	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.
Sept.	1,602	2,315	5,658	1,143	2,079	4,711	8,224
October	5,996	7,261	10,881	4,895	11,811	12,665	20,316
November	8,456	7,717	9,238	5,369	12,896	10,957	22,273
December	7,358	6,609	8,470	5,313	9,672	17,215	14,704
January	4,995	10,673	7,013	3,329	10,710	9,832	14,084
February	3,310	7,973	7,622	4,463	2,554	6,754	9,131
Total	31,717	42,548	48,882	24,512	49,722	62,134	88,732

CANADIAN CURRENCY.—A Canadian letter writer thus adverts to the subject in connection of the trade of Canada with the United States, now so rapidly progressing, and stimulated by the able reports and statistics lately published by Mr. Andrews, Mr. Seymour, and Mr. Sabine.

The growing commerce between Canada and the United States, some years ago suggested the desirability of assimilating our currency to that of the United States; and several unsuccessful attempts to that end have been made. Our currency, as it now exists, is a most anomalous and inconvenient thing. While our principal trade is with the United States and England, our currency is not that of either of those countries. It is a provincial currency, known as "Halifax Currency." The English shilling passes for one shilling and three pence, and the English sovereign for twenty-four shillings and four pence. We have made several efforts to come to the decimal system, and in 1850 our Legislature passed a law adopting the American decimal system; but the Lords of the Treasury in England told us that we were invading the royal prerogative, and must not presume to be so Yankeefied as to turn our money into republican dollars and cents. We have subsequently been informed, however, that we might adopt a decimal system, though we were not allowed to have the American. Under this imperial license the Finance Minister set his wits to work and contrived the following decimal system, which has for some time been before the Legislature:

10 minims, 1 mark; 10 marks, 1 shilling; 12 pence 1 shilling; 5 shillings, 1 crown; 10 shillings, 1 royal; 20 shillings, 1 pound.

Pounds, Shillings, Pence.—12 pence, 1 shilling; 20 shillings, 1 pound.

Pounds, Shillings, Marks.—10 minims, 1 mark; 10 marks, 1 shilling; 20 shillings, 1 pound.

Royals, Shillings, Marks.—10 minims, 1 mark; 10 marks, 1 shilling; 10 shillings, 1 royal.

Crowns, Shillings, Marks.—10 minims, 1 mark; 10 marks, 1 shilling; 5 shillings, 1 crown.

If this scheme of currency be somewhat clumsy, it must be remembered that we were not permitted to adopt the best and most convenient, the American system of dollars and cents.

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ART. XI.—OUR AGRICULTURAL STAPLES, ETC.

INTERESTING COTTON REMINISCENCES—NEW DESCRIPTION OF COTTON—ANALYSES OF MISSISSIPPI SOILS—NEW MODE OF DEFECATING SUGAR—EXTENSION OF SUGAR REGION NORTHWARD.

INTERESTING COTTON REMINISCENCES.—A writer over the signature of the "Black Sluggard," has prepared for the *Charleston Courier*, an interesting paper with this title. We believe the author to be Mr. Bellinger. The paper of Mr. Seabrook to which he refers, will be found in the Industrial Resources, *condensed.*

> "Oh plague, quoth Time to Thomas Hearne,
> Whatever I forget, you learn."

If the end of knowledge is to ascertain that we know nothing, the best memory must be that which is most forgetful. Let us, therefore, see how much we have forgotten about cotton—not Sir Edward or Sir Robert; but Koton.

In 1774 (3d Statutes, p. 613) an act for the further improvement and encouragingt he produce of silk and other manufactures in this province, &c.

The preamble recites, "Whereas it appears from late experiments that silk of the best sort may be raised and produced in this province, if the culture thereof was put under proper regulations, and further bounties were given to such persons as are willing and capable to undertake the same; for effecting whereof, and the better introducing several other valuable commodities into this province, we humbly pray his most sacred Majesty that it may be enacted."

Section 5. p. 615, allows "for every pound of neat, well-cleared, merchantable cotton, the growth of this province, which shall be exported thence, the sum of three pence proclamation money (about ¾ of a cent)." In the South Carolina Provincial Congress, January, 1775, see proceedings, (p. 39,) it was—

Resolved, That it be recommended to the inhabitants of this colony, to raise cotton, hemp, flour, wool, barley and hops.

At p. 36, are enumerated various articles, (indigo, hemp, corn, flour, lumber, pork, butter,) and the prices at which the committee of ways and means should receive them; but cotton is not mentioned—*de minimis non curat*—not much raised, (I suppose,) although in the account of the Province of Carolina in America, published in London, at "The Elephant and Castle," in 1682, (see 2d Carroll's Historical Collection, p. 34,) it is said, that "cotton of the Cyprus and Smyrna sort grow well and good—plenty of the seed is sent thither." And in 1747-'8, (see 2d Carroll, p. 235,) there were exported from South Carolina seven bags of cotton wool, valued per bag at £3 5s. 1d. sterling, ($11) or £25 Carolina currency.

In the proceedings of the Virginia Convention of Delegates, March, 1775, p. 7, it was—

Resolved unanimously, "That all persons having proper lands for the purpose, ought to cultivate and raise a quantity of flax, hemp and cotton, sufficient not only for the use of his or her own family, but also to spare to others on moderate terms."

In 1789, February 13, Gen. Washington, writing to Mr. Jefferson, (Sparks' Life and Writings, 9th vol. p. 469,) says, "Exclusive of these things, the greatest and most important objects of internal concern which at present occupy the attention of the public mind, are manufactures and inland navigation. Many successful efforts in fabrics of different kinds are every day made. Those composed of cotton, I think will be of the most immediate and extensive utility. Mr. Milne, an English gentleman, who has been many years introducing those manufactures into France, and whose father is now carrying them on, under the protection of government, at the royal chateau of Muette, in Passy, has been at my house this week, and is of opinion that they may be prosecuted in America to greater advantage than in France or England. He has been almost two years in Georgia, stimulating and instructing the planters to the production of cotton. In that state and South Carolina, it is said, the cotton may be made of a most excellent quality, and in such abundant quantities, as to prove a more profitable species of agriculture than any other crop. The increase of that new material, and the introduction of the late improved machines to abridge

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labor, must be of almost infinite consequence to the prosperity of the United States;" and in a letter to Alexander Hamilton, 14th October, 1791, (Sparks' Life and Writings, 10 vol., p. 197,) he thus writes:—"How far, in addition to the several matters mentioned in that letter, would there be propriety, do you think, in suggesting the policy of encouraging the growth of cotton and hemp in such parts of the United States as are adapted to the culture of them. The advantages which would result to this country from the encouragement of these articles, for home manufacture, I have no doubt of; but how far bounties on them come within the power of the general government, or it might comport with the temper of the times to expend money for such purposes, is necessary to be considered. Without a bounty, I know of no means by which they can be effectually encouraged."

In 1519, the Mexicans made presents to Cortes of fine cotton cloths, (2d Robertson's America, p. 16.) Whether cotton was known to the Hebrews is a vexed question. Calmet thinks Shesh ought to be rendered cotton. (Exodus 28, 39, with Lev. 14, 4.) By statute 12, Car. 11, c. 18, (1672,) no cotton was allowed to be exported from the plantation or colonies, unless first put on shore in some port in England, Wales, or Berwick.

By statute 5 Geo. III., c. 52, (1765,) any sort of cotton wool might be imported duty free in British-built ships.

On the 4th July, 1789, Congress passed an act (the second that was passed by the new government), the first related to oaths, which imposed a duty of eight cents per lb. on cotton imported after the 1st Dec., 1790, on which day, as appears by the almanac of that year, we had "high winds and unsettled weather."

The *Gazette of the United States*, (New-York, 14th November, 1789,) says in the price-current list:

	s. s.
Indigo, (Carolinian,)	3 to 6
Indigo, (French,)	18
	s. d.
Cotton	2 to 6

In 1778, (4th Statute, p. 428), an act repealing various acts, 1722 and 1770, and the resolution of 1775, passed for the encouragement of cotton, hemp, &c., which acts and resolution have fully answered the salutary purpose for which they were enacted, and by the great increase and flourishing condition of the manufactures of this state, are now become unnecessary.

In 1801, (5th Statutes, p. 427,) $50.00 appropriated for procuring the patent-right of Miller and Whitney's saw-gin, of which the editor of the Encyclopedia Americana, (edition of 1835, 3d vol., p. 572) says:—"The saw gin, invented by Mr. Whitney, is used for the black seed cotton; the seeds of which adhere too strongly to be separated by the other method," (roller gin.)

In December, 1801, (5th Statutes, p. 427,) a tax of fifty cents per each row of teeth in every cotton saw-gin used in this state, between 1st October, 1801, and 1st April, 1802. In 1803, (Resolutions, p. 88,) the Comptroller General says:—"By another resolve of the same session, the Comptroller General has been directed to take measures to compel Messrs. Miller and Whitney to refund the money received by them for their saw gin; in compliance with which, every measure in his power has been adopted to give effect to the intentions of the Legislature; but as yet no opportunity has offered of accomplishing the purpose proposed in that resolve. A tender of the notes and moneys received by them for licenses to use their gin has been made by Mr. Goodrich, their agent; but for reasons which must be obvious to the Legislature, they were not accepted. Should any specific measures be pointed out by the Legislature, relative to this matter, they will punctually be enforced."

At the same session, 1803, (5 Statutes, p. 472,) the appropriation was suspended until the lawyers, &c. could adjust the difficulty.

In 1804, (Resolutions, p. 68,) the following report was adopted:

The joint committee of both branches of the legislature, to whom was referred the memorial of Eli Whitney, report, "That on the most mature deliberation, they are of opinion that Miller and Whitney, from whom the State of South Carolina purchased the patent-right for using the saw-gin within this state, have used reasonable diligence to refund the money and notes received by them from divers citizens: and as, from several unforeseen occurrences, the said Miller & Whitney have heretofore been prevented from refunding the same;

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they, therefore, recommend that the money and notes aforesaid be now deposited with the Comptroller General to be paid over on demand to the several persons from whom the same have been received, upon their delivering up the licenses for which the said notes of hand were given, and the said moneys paid to the Comptroller General; and that he be directed to hold the said licenses subject to the order of the said Whitney. That the excellent and highly improved models now offered by the said Whitney, be received in full satisfaction of the stipulations of the contract between the state and Miller & Whitney, relative to the same, and that the suit commenced by the state against said Miller & Whitney be discontinued. The joint committee, taking every circumstance alleged in the memorial into their serious consideration, further recommend that (as the good faith of this state is pledged for the payment of the purchase of the said patent-right) the contract be now fulfilled, as in their opinion it ought to be, according to the most strict justice and equity. And, although from the documents exhibited by said Whitney to the committee, they are of opinion that the said Whitney is the true original inventor of the saw-gin; yet in order to guard the citizens from any injury hereafter, the committee recommend, that before the remaining balance is paid, the said Whitney be required to give bond and security to the Comptroller General, to indemnify each and every citizen of South Carolina against the legal claims of all persons whatsoever, other than the said Miller & Whitney, to any patent or exclusive right to the invention or improvement of the machine for separating cotton from its seeds, commonly called the saw-gin, in the form and upon the principle which it is now, and has heretofore been used in this state."

In 1805, (Resolutions, p. 114,) the Comptroller General says: In obedience to the will of the Legislature, the sum appropriated for Miller and Whitney has been paid to Mr. Whitney, the surviving copartner, and his receipts obtained therefor. The models of the saw-gin have been deposited by him, and the resolution of the 18th December last has been in every respect complied with.

On the 2d Sept., 1801, G. F. Saltonstall, of North Carolina, took out a patent for "cleaning cotton," and on 17th May, 1804, James Simonds and James M. James took out a patent for cleaning cotton; on 4th June, 1803, Saltonstall took out a patent for "a cotton saw-gin." But on 14th March, 1794, (two years before any other,) Eli Whitney, of Massachusetts, took out a patent for a "cotton gin."

Whitney was born 8th December, 1765—prepared himself partly by manual labor and partly by teaching, for Yale College, at which he graduated October, 1792; came to Georgia, and in the family of Mrs. Greene, (widow of the General,) prepared to study law, but fortunately had his attention turned to cotton. His partner, Miller, married Mrs. Greene. The State of North Carolina bought the patent-right for a tax of 2s. 6d., on every saw of every gin for five years. But a great deal of this tax and $50,000 was spent in litigation in Georgia courts about the patent-right. In 1812, Whitney applied to Congress for a renewal of his patent, but without success. He died in January, 1825. Fulton said that "Arkwright, Watt, and Whitney, did more for mankind than any of their cotemporaries." Perfectly just. Producers before consumers—Arkwright before Alexander, Whitney before Wellington, in small matters!

In the book of patents, I see patents for cotton cleaners, cotton scrapers, cotton thinners, cotton inspectors, &c., but no patent for making cotton without work, and none (as yet) for raising the price of cotton unless it be an act of Congress.

In 1805, (7th Statutes, p. 120,) an act fixing the rates of storage of cotton in Charleston, not to exceed 12½ cents per week, for each bale.

In 1807, (7th Statutes, p. 122–3,) rates altered.

In Resolutions, 1808, (June,) p. 12, members resolve to attend dressed in homespun!

In Resolutions, 1809, p. 106, the following report, which was agreed to: "Report of the committee on incorporations on the petition of John Johnson, Jr., president of the Homespun Company of South Carolina. That they have considered the same and cannot recommend the granting the loan prayed for; but do recommend that the said South Carolina Homespun Company be allowed until the next meeting of the Legislature, to

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report on the utility of the machine called the Columbian Spinster, so as to entitle, in case the same be approved, the inventor of the same to the sum provided for by law, for his benefit."

In Resolutions of 1812, p. 81, the following report, which was agreed to, and the sum was appropriated. (See A. A. 1812, 5 Statutes, p. 693.) The committee to whom was referred the petition of certain persons praying aid to enable them to establish a cotton manufactory, having had the same under consideration, respectfully report—

That from the information given them it appears that the purpose of the petitioners is to establish, at some suitable place in Greenville District, a manufactory for carding, spinning, and weaving cotton, the machinery to be impelled by water, the number of spindles to be employed, not less than 500, which is calculated will prepare thread sufficient for weaving 250 yards of cloth per day. The sum with which the petitioners pray to be aided is $10,000, to be repaid with 7 per cent. interest, one half at the expiration of two years, the balance at the expiration of three years; and the said payment to be secured to the state by a mortgage of real estate, of the value of not less than $100,000. The committee, therefore, impressed with the importance of encouraging domestic manufactories, and believing that the small loan solicited may be extended to the petitioners without inconvenience or loss to the state, recommend that the prayer of the petition be granted, and that a clause to that effect be inserted in the appropriation bill.

In Resolutions 1815, p. 90, the Sheriffs of Charleston and Richland were directed to sell the models of Whitney's saw-gin, and pay the net proceeds in the treasury.

In 1822, (6th Statutes, p. 180,) an act to prevent fraudulent packing of cotton, by putting in stone, wood, trash cotton, cotton seed, or any matter or thing whatsoever.

In State vs. Holman, (3d McCord's Reports, p. 306,) it was decided that pouring in an undue quantity of water was within the provision of this act. It has been held on circuit that plaiting a bag, (putting inferior cotton inside with good cotton all round,) does not come within the purview.

In 1836, 1838, and 1843 bills were introduced to bring "planting" within the purview; but the planters not only answered "*nolimus mutare leges*," but began to talk about false weights.

In 1826, (6th Stat. 284;) an act "to make the fraudulent and secret taking of cotton, &c., before severance from the soil, larceny." The body of the act said nothing about "before severance," but used the words "shall take from any field." Thereupon, in the State *vs.* Stephenson, (not Roland but David,) 2d Baily, 334, it was after most elaborated discussion decided, (but with a strong dissentiente,) that cotton, &c, "before severance," did come within the purview. Stephenson contended that "before severance" was not in the body of the act; and that all presumptions were to be made in favor of the common law, which declares that you cannot steal land, and that water and grass, &c., are land. It seems to me one strong point was overlooked, viz.: if the words "before severance" had been in the body of the act (and the court held them to be there by implication) then how could he take the cotton or corn "before severance?" However, it is easy for speculators to make remarks. Indeed it takes the law to catch a rogue; for in State *vs.* A. (1st Hill, p. 364,) the judges decided that A. was guilty of larceny in taking part of the crop before division, though the planter had agreed expressly that poor A. should receive a part of the crop for his services. On similar principles it was held, in Rogers *vs.* Collier (2d Baily, p. 581), that the sheriff cannot levy on the overseer's part of an undivided crop.

In 1834 (6th Statutes, p. 516,) an act forbidding shopkeepers or traders from trading with slaves for cotton, rice, indian corn, or wheat, or with free persons of color (in Charleston) for rice or cotton, without permit from guardian.

In McCullough's Commercial Dictionary—cotton—so far had been written, Mr. Editor, when I exercised the faculty of forgetfulness so strenuously that I fell asleep; and, on waking, I received by the mail Mr. Seabrook's excellent memoir on cotton.

NEW DESCRIPTION OF COTTON.—We have received, says the New-York Economist, through the politeness of Messrs. J. C. Henderson & Co., of this city, a very remarkable specimen of cotton,

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destined for the World's Fair. It was procured by one of the most enterprising and intelligent merchants of Texas, from the "Pino" Indians. It is of a texture and strength of fibre superior to any ever before offered in this market. To the touch it has the feeling of silk, being destitute of the harsh feeling incident to cotton. It is of a long staple, and of a beautiful clear white color. We understand that the enterprising discoverer has procured a quantity of the seed, and will enter extensively into the culture. It has been found under circumstances which lead to the hope that the degeneration of the quality, usual upon these fine qualities, will not be encountered in this case.

ANALYSIS OF MISSISSIPPI SOILS.—We publish with pleasure the following letter, and hope that our planters will give more attention generally to this subject of analysis of soils:—

Dear Sir,—Enclosed you will find an analysis of two samples of soil (soil and subsoil), made by Professor Riddell and Brother, at the University, which may be interesting to some of your agricultural and scientific readers. The subsoil was taken from a depth of about 8 inches, while the other was taken from the surface.

They are from No-mistake Plantation, the property of Mrs. Sarah D. Partee, situated on a prairie at the foot of the range of hills between the Big Black and Yazoo Rivers, about four miles from the latter, in Yazoo county, Miss.—being some twenty-five miles from Vicksburg. The lands are elevated 3 feet above the overflow of 1849, and 18 inches above that of 1828. Between them and the Yazoo, the growth consists of gum, palmetto, and a few bunches of cypress; the cypress being 4½ feet below the gum, and from 2 to 3 feet below the palmetto.

The prairie has been in cultivation about 30 years, and when first cultivated gave a yield of from two to two and a half bales of cotton to the acre. The same now produces only about one and a third bales to the acre.

The upper or surface soil is dark, while the subsoil is comparatively light. My reason for getting the analysis made was to determine whether I might not expect to improve the crop by deep ploughing.

The analysis seems to indicate that such will be the case, and I am now reaching a depth of eight inches, though the usual furrow has been only four.—Yours, very truly, W. B. PARTEE.

New-Orleans.

ANALYSIS.

W. B. PARTEE, ESQ.—*Dear Sir*—The analysis of the two samples of soil which you left at the laboratory, gives the following results:—

	Surface soil.	Subsoil.
Specific gravity	2.472	2.647
Silica and Silicious Sand	90.250	89.790
Alumina	2.310	2 420
Oxide of Iron	0.720	0.851
" " Manganese	a trace	a trace
Lime	0.650	0.945
Magnesia	0.450	0.375
Phosphates of Iron & Alumina	0.520	1 844
Humic Acid	1.667	0.881
Insoluble Humus	1.133	0.512
Other organic matter, by calcining	0.950	0.897
Potash and Soda, not determined.		
	98 650	98.515

Yours, very truly,
J. L. & W. P RIDDELL.
Chemical Laboratory, Univ., La.,
March, 1853.

NEW MODE OF DEFECATING SUGAR.—The public will be glad to learn that a new and simple and highly successful mode of clarifying sugar has been recently discovered and put in practice by Wade H. Gilbert, Esq., of the parish of Ascension. The results of the experiments thus far prove that sugar can be obtained by simply clarifying the juice in the *grand*, as white and fair as it is possible to make it by any other means.

The defecating fluid used exclusively by Mr. Gilbert is prepared for the common open kettles, and no extra expense or outlay is required in its application. The fluid is put into the *grand*, instead of lime, which has hitherto been used, and clarifies without coloring, or any way impairing the strength and purity of the juice. The clarification is so perfect that the syrup, when thrown off into the coolers for granulation, is to all appearance as rich as ordinary vatting syrup, and consequently more sugar is made, and more rapidly too than by any other mode.

The charges made by the discoverer for the use of the fluid is merely nominal in comparison to the benefit derived to the planter, say one dollar per hogshead for the season, and the cost of the fluid,

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which is about 30 cents per hogshead additional.

The system adopted by Mr. Gilbert offers every advantage which can be derived from the common style of sugar-houses, without any change of fixtures, and without any additional cost.

The experiments thus far have been very satisfactory, and beautiful sugar and syrup have been made from inferior juice even, and sold at an advanced price.

Mr. Gilbert intends to issue circulars, and to call on the planters generally to introduce his *defecating fluid* in season for the coming crop; and we earnestly commend to those who are interested in the culture and manufacture of sugar, to avail themselves of his discovery. It is believed by many who are acquainted with the facts, that in the event all the expensive machinery and elaborate modes of fabricating sugar will give way to this simple process, which requires no additional outlay beyond the ordinary furnace, and is within the reach of all, even the most economical planters.

EXTENSION OF SUGAR REGION NORTHWARD.—Dr. Kilpatrick, of Louisiana, in a note to us, thus refers to the paper by Dr. Cartwright, which we published in our March number, upon the extension of the sugar region:—

In addition to the many facts adduced by the Doctor, I can say that sugar-cane has been successfully reared in Georgia, as far north as the 33°. In 1827, '28, '29, and '30, my father raised several acres of the common creole or green cane, as well as the ribbon, from which he expressed the juice, with a common horse-mill, the rollers being made of logs set upright, and made sugar and several barrels of syrup or molasses. The boiling was done in common large pots. The cane grew luxuriantly, and matured often 12 and 13 joints. My quondam friend, Col. A. H. Anderson, of Burke Co., Ga., a man of considerable fortune, also made sugar pretty largely several years, but abandoned it because the crop interfered with cotton, and prices were not remunerative enough to induce him to go to the expense of a large establishment, and also the difficulties of reaching a market were too great, as he lived 50 miles from Augusta, and 95 from Savannah. My father lived a few miles from Col. Anderson, in the same county. The soil of that section of country is rather thin, the growth being oak and hickory, thickly interspersed with short-leaf pine.

I have no doubt, though, that, as more rail-roads are made, and facilities for reaching market are increased, and also as the machinery required for sugar-making becomes cheaper, that thousands of planters will make it in regions much farther north than it has ever yet been thought practicable. Again, cane, like many other plants, can become acclimated gradually to regions which have generally been considered uncongenial to its growth.

About the time above specified, there was quite a cane fever, or sugar mania, in South Carolina, and no doubt many old planters there now can tell you of their experiments. By reference to old volumes of "The Southern Agriculturist," of Charleston, you may glean many interesting facts on this subject.

ART. XII.—MANUFACTURES AND MINES.

KENTUCKY MINERALS—COAL AND IRON OF MARYLAND—COPPER OF EAST TENNESSEE—SOUTH CAROLINA MANUFACTURES.

KENTUCKY MINERALS.—Mr. Kettell, of New-York, speaks of a discovery in Kentucky likely to be of great importance. It is of a *lithographic stone.* We give an extract in regard to it:

"Some time since we made some mention of a land and marble company, organized to work marble quarries discovered in the Kentucky mountains, and promising to afford an ample supply of building and ornamental stone, so much wanted at the West. We have since learned that, of the five descriptions of marble got out upon the lands of the company, one of them has been discovered to be lithographic stone of a quality, said, by some artists who have used it, to be superior to the German stone.

This discovery is the more singular,

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that since the invention of the art of lithography, a suitable stone has never been found, except at one place in Germany, viz: Solohofen, near Munich. Many similar stones, (viz., compact limestone,) have been discovered, but none that have fully answered the purpose. It has resulted that the art has been cramped by an insufficient supply of the material. The German quarry has been worked some 300 feet below the surface, and when the blocks are out they are subject to the expensive land carriage of the interior of Germany. They consequently come very high, and in New-York vary in price from eight to twenty-four cents per pound, according to the size and freedom from crystals and veins. A stone of a few feet surface sells for some $600. The Ohio River Marble Company state, that their facility of quarrying is such that blocks of any dimensions can be supplied at merely nominal rates. Thus, a block of stone measuring a cube yard will weigh 4,050 lbs. or two tons, and will cut into seven lithographic stones one yard square and four inches thick. These, free from blemish, at present minimum market rates, would be worth $300.

Coal and Iron of Maryland.—We take the following from the *Baltimore American*, in regard to the Coal and Iron products of Maryland:

"In 1836 and 1840 our late scientific fellow-citizen, Professor Ducatel, who was then geologist of Maryland, made an examination of the great coal and iron basin in the western part of the state, which should be recurred to at the present day, when Baltimore is taking an inventory of her treasures.

"In 1836 systematic researches were made under the direction of the George's Creek Coal and Iron Company, in order to expose a complete section of the Frostburg basin. This operation developed, in a height of four hundred and fifty feet, eighteen beds of coal, the largest of which is fourteen feet thick, while the total thickness of all combined is not less than fifty-two feet. In this space there are also seventeen feet of iron ore. Dr. Ducatel estimated the whole coal field to be one hundred and seventy-six square miles, or nearly 113,097 acres, from which he subtracted 26,250 acres for denudation by streams and water courses, leaving 86,847 acres as area underlaid by beds of coal and iron ore.

"As many of these strata are but two feet in thickness, and may not be economically mined, it was judged best not to estimate the workable seams at more than forty-five feet or fifteen yards. Assuming this quantity as correct in the following calculations to ascertain the whole number of cubic yards in the coal field, we shall have: extent in acres, 86,847; number of square yards per acre, 4,840; thickness of beds, 15 yards. These numbers multiplied together will give the whole number of cubic yards, 6,305,137,287; and as one ton of coal is regarded as occupying the space of one cubic yard, there is in the basin no less than six thousand three hundred and five millions one hundred and thirty-seven thousand two hundred and eighty-seven tons of coal!

"The iron ore is scarcely less wonderful in quantity. It is calculated that quite nine feet, or three yards, may be assumed as workable: accordingly, if we take the same elements for calculation as for coal, the total amount of ore was 1,126,027,457 yards, and in weight, 3,237,576,144 tons, or about one half the weight in the coal basin; but enough to yield, in the proportion given by the test of practice, one thousand and seventy-nine millions one hundred and ninety-one thousand seven hundred and fourteen tons of crude iron.

"At the period when Dr. Ducatel made his calculation, it was supposed that this prolific mineral district would be much sooner tapped and developed by the exclusive channel of the canal. In those days coal transportation by railway was not dreamed of. But the failure to complete the canal until within a short period, and the very recent equipment of our rail-road for coal trade, have left the Alleghany basin comparatively virgin; so that to Baltimore, in all likelihood, will belong the privilege of supplying the world with our valuable minerals. This is properly a Maryland business. The city of Baltimore contributes about one-half of the taxes of the state; and, profiting by the experience of Philadelphia, it cannot see this trade wrested from us by the towns of the district. The concentration of our coal and iron in a market out of the limits of Maryland would be a disgrace to the enterprise of our people, especially

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when they consider the *commercial* value that would be given to our coal when in the city instead of at the mine, and the immense capital that such an augmented price would put in circulation among us. In estimating the coal at but 25 cents per ton, it would bring to Alleghany miners more than one thousand five hundred millions of dollars; but if we sell each ton *in Baltimore* for four *dollars*, instead of twenty-five *cents at the mine*, we shall introduce into our city a capital of from two to three millions of dollars annually. This calculation cannot err, because the sea and river steamers of our great commercial cities, as well as the fuel of dwellings and factories in other states, will surely demand from us 500,000 or 600,000 tons of our coal every year. Professor Johnson long ago declared that it was the best 'evaporative material' in existence, and experience has proved the accuracy of his scientific test."

COPPER OF EAST TENNESSEE.—On the subject of the copper mines of East Tennessee, and the progress of that portion of the state, the "Knoxville Register" furnishes some interesting facts.

Within the last year the attention of the public has been directed to the copper mines of East Tennessee in sundry ways—by the announcement of the fact that the mineral had been discovered in the greatest abundance, then by the fact that the ore was being taken from its bed and transported to market, then by its sale at high and enriching prices to the miner, and then again by the fact that it contained silver in sufficient quantities to pay all the expenses of preparing the copper for market. These striking facts are disclosed by the first attempt to open the mines, and the further the mining has proceeded, the more extensive do the mines seem to be, while indications of valuable mines are constantly presenting themselves at other points; so that it has now become a fixed fact that we have in East Tennessee copper mines of the richest quality, capable of yielding an inexhaustible quantity of the mineral.

These mines are in latitude 35½° N. and 7° W. from Washington, and the Lake Superior mines are in latitude 47° N. and 19° W. from Washington. The Lake Superior mines are 23° W. from the city of New-York, to which point the ore must be transported at the expense of several reshipments, and also several hundred miles of land carriage, while the East Tennessee mines are only 4° W. from the city of Charleston; and so soon as the Blue Ridge Rail-road is constructed, the ore from some of these mines may be transported to Charleston at a cost not exceeding eight dollars per ton. Besides the fact that the East Tennessee mines are as much as 19° nearer the sea-board than the lake mines, the difference in latitude is also greatly in their favor, being, as they are immediately contiguous to a section of the country which abounds in cheaper provisions, which has a more salubrious climate, and furnishes cheaper labor than any other portion of the Union.

In view of the advantages, we do not hesitate to predict that many millions of dollars will ere very many years be employed in working these mines, and that larger fortunes will ultimately be realized by those who become the owners of these and other mineral lands in East Tennessee (considered, as many of them now are, to be valueless almost) than have been acquired either in California or Australia.

A few years since two or three gentlemen, learning that there were indications of the presence of some valuable mineral on a lot of ground in East Tennessee, containing about one hundred and forty acres, concluded to purchase it, and did so, for about one thousand dollars. About a year since they made a sale of the same land for thirty thousand dollars, and within a few weeks past the same land was sold for the very large sum of three hundred thousand dollars.

Another fact: A few years since two or three gentlemen became owners of 50,000 acres of mountain lands, at a cost to them of about one thousand dollars. For the same lands they have since refused twenty thousand dollars, and now we doubt whether they would sell these lands for one hundred thousand dollars.

These unprecedented advances are to be attributed to the development of the minerals with which the lands referred to abound, and the approach of rail-roads, which furnish facilities for getting the minerals to desirable markets.

In view of these developments, we have not the slightest hesitancy in asserting that there is no portion of the continent, of the same extent of territory with East Tennessee, that presents such a harvest of gold to the enterprising

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capitalist as may be reaped in this "Switzerland of America." It will soon be bisected by the great line of railway extending from the British province of New-Brunswick to New-Orleans, and again by a great line from the lakes, passing through the valley of the Ohio to the Atlantic. When these great chains, crossing at this point, shall have thus linked together the various portions of our country, the immense mineral resources of East Tennessee will attract the attention of capitalists, and then will the iron, coal, copper, zinc, lead, timber, water-power, soil, marble, lime, &c., which have been hitherto (and are even yet in many instances) considered as utterly and totally valueless, for want of outlets to markets, become sources of boundless wealth to their fortunate owners.—*Knoxville Register.*

South Carolina Manufactures.—We are indebted to a friend in South Carolina, whose name we do not think we are permitted to use, but who is one of the most enterprising of its citizens, for the following interesting notes of a visit made by him to the interior of the state, and of the improved condition and enlarging industry of the people whom he found there. South Carolina wants many such sons. They are at present little appreciated. In the seven years that we have edited our Review, a less support has been extended by her to it than she has given to a *score* of northern works. The reason is, there is little taste in South Carolina for industrial statistics, and facts bearing upon general progress. There is less real disposition to sustain anything, *originated at home*, whatever theories may be maintained to the contrary. As one to the "manor born," we are at liberty to speak thus plainly, though we have not tolerance enough to permit another to do so. Will South Carolina ever change in this? Will she ACT with the eloquence and power with which she above all others can speak?—Will she?—we hope it—we believe it!

Columbia never before stood on such a vantage ground of prosperity. She needs but a liberal policy on the part of her capitalists and banking institutions to make her prosper beyond example in our state. She is being built up by mechanics and manufacturers, and the prosperity which such men bring to a place is as solid and enduring as it is rapid and perceptible. Everywhere the busy hum of industry resounds, and the demand for new laborers is increasing.—Carpenters, engineers, masons, blacksmiths, car-builders, stone-cutters, coachmakers, painters, and printers, all find ready employment here, and the completion of the railroads which now diverge from this point in every direction, will but serve to augment the demand for skilful labor of all sorts that now exists here. If these railroads do not greatly benefit Columbia—and it is predicted by the croakers they will injure it—it will form a new feature in the history of railroads that has no counterpart in the past. But away with such croakings! We have not the patience to expose the erroneous arguments of those who forebode evil. Why should we trouble ourselves to prove that which is self-evident. —Who is there that has lately seen Columbia who does not perceive she is going ahead? The gun factory here is now in full operation—it is a fine building, of handsome proportions, and is situated on the top of a very high hill on the west side of the town, near the residence of Mrs. Taylor. The machinery is all of the most perfect description, the engine an admirable piece of work of Charleston manufacture—and all the parts of the arms they make, rifles, muskets, pistols and sabres, are made within the building in the most perfect manner. The enterprise of Messrs. Boatwright and Glaze deserves to be well rewarded, as doubtless it will be by the large state contract which they have taken.

This Mr. Boatwright is the same gentleman who, in connection with Mr. Pomeroy, has established a coach factory here, where vehicles of elegant design and superior workmanship are produced in considerable numbers, and are sold at prices quite as low as those of the same finish brought from the North. When, as in this establishment, the mechanics of South Carolina, by skilful management, thus demand the patronage of their fellow citizens without asking any favor in price, they cannot fail to extort an extensive patronage even from a people so prone as we are to preferences of everything foreign.—The new fire proof building in the state house square is going up, and is built of native granite of beautiful color and fine quality.

Alongside of those gate-posts of the

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capitol, which have been characterized as "enduring monuments of our shame" —being of Quincy granite, we have now similar ones of native granite—the massive iron railing having been extended from the capitol garden to the corner of Bridge-street, and they are of such beautiful appearance as to contrast most triumphantly with the northern stone.—May we not hope that the building now going up will prove but the beginning of a state-house on such a scale as will challenge as much our future admiration as the existing one does our present execration.

I must now beg to be indulged in carrying your readers with me on a visit to one of the most complete and promising little manufacturing establishments to be found anywhere either within our state or out of it. I allude to the chair factory and turnery of Dr. Percival, a few miles from the town. It is most charmingly located in the sand hills—a region that knows no unhealthy season. The water power is supplied from a beautiful lake which, like many others hereabouts, finds its source in the sand hills, whence there comes a never failing supply of water. It is as true as it is surprising, of these collections of fresh water, that they are in nowise detrimental to the health of the inhabitants. Issuing out of the white sand beds, a number of minor tributaries concentrate in sand-bottomed beds, and so slight is the deposit of vegetable matter that their beds preserve almost their primitive whiteness. Their surfaces seem but to subserve the cooling exhalation without evolving any of their fatal miasms, which are so generally characteristic of fresh water bayous or lakes, whilst the clear pure and deep mass of water—free of anything harmful, and with bank and bottom of the most inviting character—presents in the heat of summer an invitation to bathing which can hardly be resisted. It is perfectly true that earth presents scarcely a spot where a man may more easily pick up a living than in these same sand hills, and yet the inhabitants for the most part are the most wretchedly inert, and therefore continually stinted people to be found anywhere. This is owing on the one part to the absence of that stimulation which the state is bound to furnish in public schools, and on the other to the heavy drag upon their morals which the state elections biennially impose on them by means of corrupt practices. Freemen are here, as with us in Charleston, openly and shamelessly bartered for, or bought up like cattle in the market, and whilst the politician perjures their souls, the whisky seller perishes their bodies.—But amongst these sons of the desert, civilization is creeping in. Oases are springing up everywhere, and by the infusion of mechanical enterprise, we may yet hope to see these so much to be pitied sons of Carolina rendered virtuous, happy and useful people. Almost every mechanical establishment in and about Columbia gives employment to some of the sand-hill boys; and in the factory of Dr. Percival, we were pleased to learn, are several energetic and respectable young men, natives of these diggings, who were at work, and exhibiting all the skill and aptness of their more experienced mechanical tutors. But to the factory itself. It is not on a very large scale, but as complete as it can be for all the purposes contemplated by the enterprising and well managing gentleman who projected it. Turning in all its varieties is done here, with the greatest precision and nicety, and with almost incredible rapidity. In the manufacture of chairs, when the circular and vertical saws have answered all the demands that may be made on them, there is but little required which the lathe cannot accomplish—and here it is all done to perfection. Chairs of beautiful and varied patterns, some of them original in design, and superior, as affecting comfort and elegance, to any we have ever seen of northern make, are turned off by hundreds. The caning is done here in beautiful style, and some of the female slaves employed in this department, exhibit, after but a brief experience, a facility and quickness really surprising—inasmuch as they perform what is regarded amongst the Yankees a full day's task with the greatest ease and in a more perfect manner. We were shown several specimens of caning from different northern factories, executed by first-class operatives, which, upon comparison with those executed by the women here, were found to be most decidedly inferior to the latter. The painting, both plain and ornamental, is also done here in the best style. But now for the most important item—the cost! The chairs are made at a less cost than in any northern factory—even

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now, whilst a part of the labor here is paid for in this pioneer factory at a rate much beyond what it will be procurable at as soon as a sufficient number of operatives shall have been drilled on the spot. The sophomores and juniors are studying faithfully, and are forward scholars—ere long we may look for a graduation of seniors, who will immediately set about the work of pioneering themselves in other parts of the state.

Thus it is always that a mechanical school, like a literary one, continually sends forth its graduates to enlighten and benefit society. But we return to our assertion, that to make a chair costs here less than any where at the north; and how can it be otherwise? The power which nature supplies in this sand-hill lake is as constant and regular in action as it is exhaustless in quantity, and keeps within its proper metes and bounds without any restraint of bank or dam, for just at its narrow mouth is placed the mill-race, which a single flood-gate controls. Around, and in sight of the mill, grows the very kind of trees that this manufacture requires for its materials: oak, bird's-eye and straight-grained maple, walnut, beach, hickory, birch, elm and China-tree woods, which together furnish almost all the materials that even the highest art in chair-making calls for. The trees are merely stripped of their limbs, and, in the green state, without even stripping off the bark, are put under the saws, which by various cuttings soon reduce them to the diminutive shapes of the trade—then by a quick and most perfect process they are seasoned in a few days, and afterwards finished up for sale. By this means the lumber is laid down at the mill at the smallest possible cost, no expense of large lumber storehouses is incurred, and no interest paid on capital lying idle in a lumber investment. Almost every particle of the forest tree is used to advantage, even the bark being stripped from the edges of the sawed pieces to finish the material, now coming so much into use, for rustic arbors and chairs, &c. for gardens. In every department of this model factory we perceive indications of a thorough perception of the art of producing the largest representation of mercantile value at the smallest possible outlay of domestic means. The materials at the very doors cost almost nothing; the water power, never failing, works without wages; and the manual labor, costing even now as little as northern labor, may be and will be, under a Percival's skilful and eminently practical management, made, by the judicious intermingling of slave male and female labor with that of the native whites, and their imported tutors, cheaper than it can possibly be had for in any northern locality. Here then, with all the elements of cost at the lowest rate, the wares of this factory would contend successfully, even for a foreign market, with the keenest Yankee competition. As to the home market, the Doctor will have undisputed possession to the extent that he can supply the various styles called for in the trade. It costs quite as much to bring a Windsor chair from New-Hampshire or Massachusetts, (the principal seats of this kind of manufacture,) to Columbia, as the original price of it in the home market. We will call it precisely the same. Thus it will be seen that, even admitting the cost of manufacture here to be as much as at the north, which it is not, they will yield a profit of one hundred per cent. if sold at the price which the northern chairs cost laid down here.

ART. XIII.—INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

LETTER OF HON. JAMES ROBB—NORTH ALABAMA AND SAVANNAH RAIL-ROAD—RAIL-ROADS OF INDIANA AND ILLINOIS.

The Hon. James Robb, in a letter to Col. de Russy, a pamphlet copy of which he has kindly furnished us, argues with ability the question of state subscription to rail-road works, and thus refers to the three great lines of improvement in which Louisiana is now so much interested.

The Opelousas or Great Western Rail-road may be constructed from New-Orleans to the Sabine River, at a cost not exceeding fifteen thousand dollars

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per mile, estimating iron, materials and labor at their present cost. The almost unbroken surface of country over which it will be located will render it the cheapest road in the world for the transportation of freight and passengers; and, without being able to estimate its business, which in time will prove of the greatest magnitude, I assume that its expenses will be less, in proportion, than any great road in Europe or America; and that, in any event, it will prove one of great profit to the state and its stockholders. You who know better than I do the country which is to be peopled and improved by means of this great improvement, can best judge of the accuracy of my prediction.

The Vicksburg and Shreveport Road, while not commencing with the advantages of the Opelousas Road, which has its terminus opposite a city of 150,000 inhabitants, is of the highest importance to the state and the region of country through which it passes, and is such as to possess the strongest claims to the most favorable consideration of the Legislature. I fully concur in the accuracy of the memorial submitted by Mr. Coleman, President of this company, and am convinced that the friends of this improvement have not overrated its importance, and that it cannot fail to prove highly productive, and when completed, become the great highway of emigration to the extensive territories of Western Louisiana and Texas.

The Great Northern Road may be constructed, at the present cost of iron, materials and labor, to the Tennessee River, at a cost of ten millions of dollars, or about twenty-three thousand dollars per mile; and the careful inquiries and reports of those charged with the examination of that portion of the route crossing the swamps and prairies, furnish conclusive testimony in favor of the practicability of the route adopted. A large portion of the road traverses a country of resources and fertility which is capable of supplying a business which alone would give support to the road, independent of other sources.

We however rely on its important connections, and the facilities it will afford to travel and rapid intercommunication, as most likely to prove its great and chief source of profit. The completion of this road to the Tennessee River will at once command the travel descending the Mississippi and Ohio rivers, and enable the passenger leaving St. Louis or Louisville, to reach New-Orleans in sixty hours, without incurring the delay and dangers of a voyage of a thousand miles on the Mississippi River.

Aside from its advantage in this respect, it will have its connection with the Mobile and Ohio Road, reaching to the Ohio River, and from thence by the Central Railroad of Illinois to Chicago and the northern lakes; also the Memphis and Charleston Road, terminating at Chattanooga. From this point railroad communication is already open to Charleston and Savannah; and from it there is now in progress of construction an entire line of rail-road *via* Knoxville in East Tennessee to Alexandria on the Potomac, for all of which the means of completion have been secured by the liberal aid of the states of Tennessee and Virginia. While communication with the Pacific is carried on, either by the Isthmus of Darien or Tehuantepec, or any other route than by a direct railroad to the Pacific by a northern line, the Great Northern Road will absorb the entire travel between the countries on the Pacific and the states located east of the Mississippi and Ohio rivers. What will be the commerce of such a road, leading as it does from a city of one hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants, and of the largest export of raw produce in the world?

We have some additional facts in regard to the Shreveport Road, furnished us in the address of the President, N. D. Coleman, Esq.

The direct influence of the road, here advocated, upon the northern parishes of Louisiana, has been noticed. Its effects upon New-Orleans, our commercial mart, will now claim our attention. It has been deduced that 300,000 bales of cotton will be the increased product of the northern parishes, by the completion of our road. It will be but a reasonable calculation to suppose there must follow an increased production of cotton in that tier of counties in Arkansas, only a short distance north of our route, say that it will amount only to 50,000 bales. In like manner, the counties in Texas, north of the line of the Opelousas Railroad, will be induced, by the facilities offered by our road, to extend the culture of cotton to the amount of 50,000 bales. The total amount of increase,

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then, will be 400,000 bales of cotton, all of which will reach New-Orleans by way of the road to the river, and by the river from Vicksburg. The value of this augmentation can scarcely be estimated.—If, however, each bale leaves only $5 for storage, pressing, commissions, &c., it amounts to two millions of dollars. But the commercial and monetary transactions, predicated of this large amount of cotton, will take a much wider range, and secure much more beneficial results; perhaps it may contribute to the establishment of a direct importing trade.

If the Vicksburg, Shreveport and Texas Road shall be extended through the northern portion of Texas, it will not have progressed far before it reaches the grain-growing regions of that state. The country between latitudes 32 and 33°, north and northeast of Austin, is adapted to the growth of wheat, at the rate of 50 bushels per acre, weighing from 60 to 64 pounds to the bushel.

The facilities offered by the road are destined to superinduce the manufacture of flour in that section, which will find its market in the city of New-Orleans. So far, then, as New-Orleans is concerned, the Vicksburg, Shrieveport and Texas Rail-road, occupies *in fact*, and should occupy, in the estimation of all Louisiana, especially of New-Orleans, a very high degree of importance.

It is estimated that the road will be 206 miles long, and cost, including bridges, buildings, motive power &c., $3,145,339.

Under the title of the *North Alabama and Savannah Rail-road*, an article lately appeared in the Savannah Republican, which we extract: "Permit me to call your attention to a projected line of rail-road, not put down on any map, but which, when carefully examined, will be found vastly to contribute to the trade and commerce of Savannah, and the increase of tonnage and passengers going over the Western and Macon and Central rail-roads.

"If you will examine the map of Tennessee, Alabama and Georgia, and draw an air line from Memphis, Tennessee, to Savannah, Georgia, it will at once appear that Decatur, North-Alabama, Griffin and Macon, Ga., are nearly upon that line. A line of road, therefore, reaching from Memphis, Tenn., to Savannah, via Decatur, to Griffin, would at once be preferred above all others to Baltimore, Philadelphia and New-York, for all descriptions of freight from the south and southwest seeking those points; also for all merchandise shipped from the northern cities seeking the south and southwest within its influence or range. It would also control a vast amount of travel which will otherwise take the East Tennessee and Virginia Rail-road. In fact, it is the only route, including all roads already made, or in contemplation, which will carry freight or passengers as quick as the East Tennessee and Virginia route from north to south via Memphis.

"The road from Memphis to Decatur will be comleted in three years at farthest (a distance of less than two hundred miles,) under the charter of the Memphis and Charleston R. R. Co., and the only portion of this contemplated new route to build is from Decatur, Alabama, to Griffin, in Georgia, a distance of about 170 miles; and it is rather a remarkable fact that following the air line from Decatur to Griffin leads us through, or very near to, the only practicable route known from North to Middle Alabama, to wit: through Morgan, Marshall, touching the lines dividing De Kalb and Cherokee from St. Clair, and through the centre of Benton county, near Jacksonville, the county seat, thence to near Gadsden, and through Newnan, to Griffin.

"This road would, to a very considerable extent, drain the whole of North Alabama above and below the Muscle Shoals, which region of country is generally known as the Tennessee Valley, making annually from seventy-five to one hundred thousand bales of cotton, varying according to seasons; and with a plank road made to Elkton, Tenn., which is thirty miles north of Decatur, Ala., from ten to twenty thousand bales more would, in all probability, seek its way to Savannah. Upon reaching Coosa Valley from Rome, in Ga., to Talladega county, the road runs through a section of the country, yielding at least twenty thousand bales more, which would be tributary to it.

"Thus, it will be perceived that, in the article of cotton alone, the road would intersect a portion of country yielding from one hundred to one hundred and twenty thousand bales, and, with the aid of the plank road, or roads, could contribute *one hundred and thirty-thousand bales.*

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"Again, goods purchased in Baltimore, Philadelphia or New-York would, almost necessarily, be sent by way of Savannah, to supply all the section of country intersected by this contemplated road to Memphis, Tenn., and beyond that point, to a portion of West Tennessee, Mississippi, Arkansas and Texas. Besides, it would induce a considerable carrying trade all along the line of road from St. Louis, Mo., in flour, hides, and other articles of commerce, which she has for exchange for other products of other sections of the country.

"And the grand reason why I believe all these anticipated results will be realized, is in the fact, mainly, that Decatur, North Alabama, *via* this new route to Griffin in Georgia, is *nearer* Savannah than Chattanooga is to Charleston by rail-road. The distance from Chattanooga to Charleston, by railroad, is four hundred and forty-four miles. The distance from Decatur, Ala., to Griffin is 170 miles; the distance from Griffin to Savannah is 249 miles. Making, in all, the distance from Decatur to Savannah 419 miles. But, allowing the road to diverge at various points, it is sufficient to establish the important fact, that Decatur will be as near Savannah for freight or travel as Chattanooga is to Charleston, making a difference of length by rail-road of 130 miles, and by river of 185 miles, in favor of the new route to Savannah—sufficient, in my estimation, to overcome all competition by other lines.

"The distance in miles being so much in favor of this new road, it is confidently believed and maintained, that it is the only possible way to control the cotton of the Tennessee Valley to the Atlantic ports; because the Memphis and Charleston Road can afford to carry cotton from Decatur to Memphis, and by steamboat from Memphis to New-Orleans, for three dollars per bale, including insurance, or, at most, three dollars and twenty-five cents; but, by the road from Decatur *via* Griffin to Savannah, it can be carried at the same rate, because insurance will be saved. In this case, I do not at all conceive it doubtful how the large bulk of the cotton will go —clearly to Savannah—it being a well-ascertained fact, that prices are generally better for North Alabama cotton at the Atlantic ports than are realized at the gulf ports, which is sufficient to induce it to go that way. But the present rates charged from the Tennessee River to Savannah or Charleston, say $5 per bale including insurance, would not be for a moment submitted to by any planter or shipper, knowing the difference in cost; consequently, no cotton can be expected, with any show of reason, to seek the Atlantic ports, when a communication by rail-road is made to Memphis, *unless this projected road is built.*

"The country through Marshall, and for some distance towards Cherokee, is mountainous and rugged, but presents no formidable obstacle in building the road, it being intersected with valleys running in the direction of Gadsden, which approximates the air line already mentioned.

"There can be no question that the freight and travel already mentioned as likely to be brought on this line of road, would yield a considerable revenue, and make it, in fact, a good investment, at fifteen thousand dollars per mile, or probably more. And when viewed in all its important bearings upon Savannah, Baltimore, Philadelphia and New-York, it is presumed no great difficulty would be experienced in realizing capital to build it.

"The writer trusts that enough has already been stated to point out its great importance, and to call public attention to it, and speedy action in getting surveys and estimates made by an experienced engineer; and if he succeeds to this extent for the present, he will remain satisfied, and will have accomplished the task he has undertaken—being entirely satisfied as to the final result, when estimates and surveys are made."

RAIL-ROADS IN INDIANA.—The third annual report of the Bellefontaine and Indiana Rail-road Company states that the road is nearly ready for business, as far as the western line of Ohio, at a town called Union. The road commences at the town of Galion, on the Cleveland, Columbus and Cincinnati Rail-road, and, in conjunction with the Indianopolis and Bellefontaine Rail-road, forms a continuous line from Galion to the state capital of Indiana. The Indiana portion of the route, 84 miles to Indianapolis, is completed, and open for

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use throughout, connecting at Indianopolis with 488 miles of finished roads, and 318 additional, now in course of construction. The whole road from Galion to the state line is 118 miles, the estimated cost of which is $1,986,000, equal to about $16,836 per mile, including depots, cars, locomotives, bridges, and other items for placing the road in working order. The importance of this road may be estimated in part from the fact that it is a part of the only direct route from Cleveland to St. Louis. The report states that the whole 118 miles will be in operation in May next. Such is the direct line of the route, that the whole distance is only four miles greater than an air line. Galion is 595 feet above the level of Lake Erie.

We learn from the *Pittsburgh Gazette*, that the ceremony of breaking the ground on the Alleghany Valley Rail-road took place near Pittsburgh, early in April. The mayor, city council, and a large number of citizens were present. Mayor Riddle broke the ground, and made some appropriate remarks, and was followed by Gov. Johnson, in an elaborate and interesting speech. This road will lead from Pittsburgh in an N.N.W. direction to Olean, on the New-York and Erie Railroad, thus forming a connection between Pittsburgh and New-York by means of the New-York and Erie Road, and the new route.

ILLINOIS RAIL-ROADS.—Among the important lines of communication between Chicago and the States of Wisconsin, Iowa, Indiana, Michigan and Missouri, we notice the following as completed or in progress: thus forming a powerful *cordon* of roads which will contribute largely to the wealth of the state, and enable it to liquidate its existing public debt.

1. Michigan Central Rail-road to Detroit, 280 miles; 2. Michigan Southern Rail-road to Toledo, Ohio, 245 miles; 3. Chicago and Rock Island Rail-road, 180 miles; 4. Chicago and Cincinnati Rail-road, 280 miles; 5. Illinois Central Rail-road to Cairo, 351 miles; 6. Chicago and Mississippi Rail-road to Alton, 280 miles; 7. Chicago, Aurora and C. M. Road to Quincy, 220 miles; 8. Chicago and St. Charles Air Line Rail-road, to Galena, 160; 9. Chicago and Galena Rail-road to Dubuque, Iowa, 200 miles; 10. Illinois and Wisconsin Rail-road to Fond du Lac, 180 miles; 11. Lake Shore Rail-road to Milwaukie, 90 miles; 12. Chicago and Fort Wayne Rail-road, 180 miles. Total miles of trunk roads, 2,646.

1. Michigan Central Rail-road completed.

2. Michigan Southern Rail-road completed.

3. Chicago and Rock Island Rail-road completed 100 miles, and the remainder under contract for completion in January next.

4. Chicago and Cincinnati Rail-road, 66 miles finished; iron purchased for 108 miles additional, between Richmond (Indiana) and Logansport, on the Wabash. The route is almost in a direct line between the two points.

5. Illinois Central Rail-road. This road is under contract for completion in two years. It passes through nineteen counties, all rich agricultural districts.

6. Chicago and Mississippi Rail-road, to Alton, 78 miles completed, and in active preparation.

7. Chicago, Aurora and Central Military Tract Road is in progress of construction, and will pass through the counties of Du Page, Kendall, La Salle, Bureau, Stark, Knox, Warren, Henderson, McDonough, Schuyler and Adams.

8. Chicago and St. Charles Air Line Road will pass through Du Page, Kane, De Kalb, Ogle, and Carroll counties to the town of Savannah on the Mississippi River. This road will come in competition with the Chicago and Galena Rail-road.

9. Chicago and Galena Rail-road—completed to Rockford, about half way to Dubuque (Iowa). During the present year it will be extended to Dubuque, which is the only town of any importance in Iowa, lying on the Mississippi.

10. Illinois and Wisconsin Rail-road to Fond du Lac, Janesville, &c., northwest of Chicago.

11. Lake Shore Rail-road—to Milwaukie, designed mainly for travel to that place.

12. Chicago and Fort Wayne Rail-road—a western continuation of the Pennsylvania and Ohio Rail-road—is partly finished and the remainder under contract, 180 miles from Chicago.

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ART. XIV—EDITORIAL—LITERARY—MISCELLANEOUS, ETC.

WORKS OF DANIEL WEBSTER—NAVAL AND MAIL STEAMERS OF THE UNITED STATES—NOTICES OF NEW BOOKS—ST. LOUIS MERCANTILE SOCIETY—PAMPHLETS, ADDRESSES, REPORTS, ETC.

The Works of Daniel Webster. 6 vols.—Boston; Little and Brown, 1853. We are indebted to the publisher for a copy of the sixth edition of this work.

The first volume is embellished with a very fine engraving of Mr. Webster, and is inscribed by him to his nieces. It opens with a very elaborate biography of the great statesman, occupying nearly half the volume, the production of the Hon. Edward Everett, whose reputation as a statesman and a scholar loses nothing in comparison with any of his countrymen. If the events of the brilliant career of Mr. Webster were not so familiar to every one, we would gladly extract from this portion of the volume. The remainder of it includes some twenty miscellaneous speeches, made on various public occasions between 1820 and 1840.

Volume 2, embraces the following speeches: speech at a Mass Meeting, at Saratoga; Whig Principles and Purposes; speech in Wall-street; at Whig Convention in Richmond; to the Ladies of Richmond; Reception at Boston; the Northeast Boundary; Convention at Andover; Landing at Plymouth; Mass Meeting at Albany; Whig Convention at Albany; Convention at Valley Forge; Mr. Justice Story; Public Dinner at Philadelphia; Southern Tour; opening of the Northern Rail-Road; at Marshfield; in Faneuil Hall, 1848; on Jeremiah Mason; Festival of the Sons of New-Hampshire; Pilgrim Festival in New-York, 1850 Visit to Buffalo, 1851; to the Young Men of Albany; Corner stone of the Capitol, 1851.

Volume 3, embraces the political speeches of Mr. Webster, made between the years 1815 and 1833, including the celebrated Greek speech, the speech upon Foote's Resolutions, and that upon the constitutional compact, in answer to Mr. Calhoun. There is a fine illustration on steel of the Marshfield residence.

Volume 4, continues the congressional speeches down to 1840, the most elaborate of which were those upon the Removal of the Deposits, the Bank Charter, the Removing Power, Slavery in the District of Columbia, the Sub-Treasury, etc.

Volume 5, completes the political speeches to the period of Mr. Webster's final retirement from the Senate. In the list are those upon Bankrupt Law, Oregon, Texas, the Treaty of Washington, the Mexican War; the Wilmot Proviso; on the death of John C. Calhoun; the Fugitive Slave Law, and lastly, and greatest of all, the celebrated "Compromise speech" of 7th March, 1850. There are several other legal arguments in the volume, originating in Mr. Webster's practice at the bar.

Volume 6, continues the legal arguments, and embraces in addition all the diplomatic and official papers of Mr. Webster, together with a great number of miscellaneous letters, public and private.

This magnificent edition of Mr. Webster's works should be in the hands of every citizen of the republic, and be studied together with those of the other great expounders of the constitution and government.

Naval and Mail Steamers of the United States, by Charles B. Stuart, Engineer in Chief of the United States Navy.—Illustrated with thirty-six fine engravings. Second edition, New-York, C. B. Norton, 1853.

The work is an honor to the typographical art of our country, as well as to its scientific character. It includes minute descriptions of the following named steamers:

Demologos, or Fulton No. 1, Fulton No. 2, Union, Michigan, General Taylor, Colonel Harvey and the Poinsett, Scourge and the Iris, Mississippi, Missouri, Princeton, Water Witch, Spitfire and the Vixen, Alleghany, Massachusetts and the Edith, Scorpion and the Polk, Engineer, John Hancock, Saranac, San Jacinto, Susquehanna, Powhatan, Fulton No. 3, Alleghany No. 2, Water Witch No. 2, John Hancock No. 2, Princeton No. 2, Collins' Line, Law Line, Bremen Line, Havre Line, Aspinwall Line:

The Illustrations are as follows:

View of the Naval Steamer Powhatan; View of the Mail Steamer Arctic; View of the Demologos; View of the Fulton, (Second;) Section of the Hull of the Fulton; View of Mississippi's Piston; Movement of the Princeton's Engines; Engines of the Princeton; Boilers of the Princeton; Propeller of the San Jacinto; Engines of the Powhatan; Boilers of the Powhatan; View of the Fulton, (Third;) Engine of the Fulton, (Third;) Engines of the Alleghany, (Second;) Boilers of the Alleghany, (Second;) Condenser of the Alleghany, (Second;) Propeller of the Alleghany, (Second;) Wheels of the Water Witch; View of the John Hancock, (Second;) View of the Princeton, (Second;) Engines of the Arctic, (2 Plates;) Boilers of the Arctic; View of the Illinois; View of the Golden Gate; Engines of the Golden Gate, (2 Plates;) Indicator Cards, (2 Plates.)

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Mr. Stuart says, "in collecting the materials for this volume, I have sought for information wherever I deemed it could be found most authentic; and although it is not expected, in collecting statistics of numerous vessels, many of which are not now in existence, and others in distant seas, that the particulars of each have, in all instances, been fully given; yet it is believed a great degree of accuracy has been attained. But if any omissions or errors should be hereafter found, they will be promptly noticed in future editions. I have also endeavored to give proper credit to whomsoever due; and the hope is indulged that justice has been done to all, and that this effort to record the history of our national enterprise and skill will be favorably received by the American people."

We have received the following works *from Lippincott, Grambo & Co., of Philadelphia,* through T. L. White, New-Orleans.

Roland Trevor, or the Pilot of Human Life —being an autobiography of the author— showing how to make and lose a fortune, and then to make another.

2. History of the Second War, by C. J. Ingersoll, 2 vols. 1853.

3. The Foot Path and Highway, by Benj. M. Moran.

4. Freedley's Practical Treatise on Business.

5. Charity and the Clergy, a Review, by a Protestant Clergyman, of the 'New Themes for the Protestant Clergy."

The first volume of Mr. Ingersoll's History of the Second War has been for a long time before the public. The second is now issued, and the two together have been printed in neat and handsome style. These volumes supply a deficiency in our historical annals, and should be the companion of Bancroft in every library. We have before referred to Freedley's Practical Treatise on Business, which every clerk and merchant should read, and which, from its great merit, has already run through several editions.

We are also indebted to Lippincott, Grambo & Co., Philadelphia, through Frank Taylor, Washington, for

1. New Themes for the Protestant Clergy; embracing Creeds without Charity, Theology without Humanity, and Protestantism without Christianity, etc.; by Stephen Colwell. Second edition, 1853.

2. Elements of the Laws or Outlines of the system of Civil and Criminal Laws, in force in the United States, and in the several States of the Union, for popular use, by Thos. L. Smith, one of the Judges of Indiana.

History of New-York, from the Earliest Settlement to the present time; by W. H. Carpenter and T. S. Arthur, 1853.

The first named of these works has acquired a reputation in the religious world. Judge Smith's Elements of Law is a neat little volume, and is well adapted to the use of schools; the History of New-York forms another of the Cabinet Series which is intended to include the whole of the states.

From Harper and Brothers, through J. C. Morgan, New-Orleans.

1. History an of Adopted Child, by Geraldine.

2. Vinet's Pastoral Theology, by T. H. Skinner, LL. D.

3. Complete works of Saml. Taylor Coleridge; vols. 1 and 2.

4. The Queens of Scotland, vol. 3, by Agnes Strickland.

5. Bleak House, No. 12, by Dickens.

6. Louis XVII. of France, the Bourbon Prince.

7. A Child's History of England, by Chas. Dickens.

8. Lives of Alexander and William Von Humboldt.

9. The History of Nero, by Jacob Abbott.

10. Ellen Linn, (Franconia Stories,) by Jacob Abbott.

11. Agatha's Husband, by the author of the Ogilvies, etc.

12. Vilette, by Carrer Bell.

We have here several popular and most interesting novels; a valuable work on Theology; a continuation of Bleak House; a Child's History of England, by Dickens, and two more volumes of Jacob Abbott's Popular Volumes for Youths.

The works of Coleridge; the Queens of Scotland and the History of Louis XVII., are all of a standard character, and will be noticed again by us.

No biography could be more instructive than that of the great brothers Humboldt, —*par nobile fratrum,* whose names are held in honor throughout the civilized world.

From Harper and Brothers, and G. P. Putnam, we received the May numbers of their popular monthlies.

From J. W. Randolph, Richmond, Va.— A little volume of sketches of the Southwest, edited by a gentleman of Richmond. The stories are amusing, enough and illustrate the peculiar phases of Western life.

Mr. Randolph has on hand all the valuable publications of Virginia lawyers and statesmen, from the earliest period of this republic, including the debates in the Conventions of 1798, 1830 and 1851, Tucker on the Constitution, Dew on Slavery, Jefferson's Writings, etc.

From D. Appleton & Co., through Frank Taylor, Washington:

1. Prismatics, by Richard Hayward — Illustrated with designs, by Elliot, Darley, Hicks, etc.

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2. Dr. Birch and His Young Friends, by W. M. Thackeray, with sixteen illustrations, by the author.

3. Jeames's Diary—a Legend of the Rhine—Rebecca and Rowena, by W. M. Thackeray, 1653.

4. Electro-Physiology; a scientific, popular and practical treatise on the prevention and cure of disease, or electricity as a curative agent, supported by theory and fact, by Dr. Gershom Huff.

5. History of English Literature, with an outline of the origin and growth of the English language, illustrated with extracts for the use of schools and private students, by Wm. Spalding, A. M.

6. English Items, or Microscropic Views of England and Englishmen, by Matthew F. Ward, author of letters from three continents. Fourth edition.

For all of the above works we are indebted to D. Appleton & Co., through Frank Taylor, of Washington. Mr. Ward's book on England has met with an extraordinary sale, and has been once or twice referred to by us before. He certainly deserved great credit for throwing off the ordinary prejudices of the traveler in favor of everything that is foreign, and for his bold and open denunciation of the pretensions of Englishmen and their society at home or abroad.

Dr. Huff claims that his Electro-Physiology forms a compendious exposition of the laws which govern and insure the best conditions of health; presents the most natural and simple preventives to disease; and, lastly, the most available and efficient means of cure, independently of any aid from the empirical medical nostrums which are unfortunately daily dealing out destruction to the young and unwary.

We need say nothing of the work of Mr. Thackeray, which forms one of the popular and cheap monthly series of Messrs. Appleton, as the reputation of the writer is sufficient.

From J. B. Steel, New-Orleans:

1. Daisy Burns, a tale by Julia Kavanagh —3 vols. in one.

2. The Young Marooners on the Florida Coast, or Robert and Harold, by F. K. Goulding, 2d edition.

3. Mr. Brown's Letter to a Young Man About Town—Appleton's Popular Library, from Punch.

4. The Heir of Redcliffe, 2 vols., by the author of Two Guardsmen.

5. The Brass-founder's Guide, by Joseph Larkin. A. Hart, Philadelphia.

6. Harry Muir, a story of Scottish Life, 3 vols. in one. (Appleton.)

7. The Monarchist, by John B. Jones. A. Hart, Philadelphia.

These are all interesting works, and furnish cheap and wholesome reading for the approaching summer. Daisy Burns is a touching and interesting story. The Young Marooners on the Florida Coast abound in agreeable incident. Mr. Brown's letter from Punch is altogether worthy of its frolicking source; the Heir of Redcliffe and Henry Muir are excellent romances. We shall refer again to the Monarchist. The Brass-founder is one of a series of practical works which Mr. Hart is publishing, to illustrate all the pursuits and divisions of mechanic life.

From Hart, Philadelphia, through J. C. Morgan:

1. The Curse of Clifton, by Emma Southworth.

2. The Obligation of the Sabbath—a discussion between Rev. J. Newton Brown and W. B. Taylor.

An admirable and exciting novel, and a didactic and elaborate discussion upon Christian observances, are thus singularly grouped together in our notice. As editor and critic, we recommend both.

We have received *from Ticknor, Reed, and Fields, Boston,* through *T. L. White, New-Orleans.*—De Quincy's Writings, Historical and Critical Essays, etc., by Thomas De Quincy, 2 vols. 1853.

We know of no work published for many years, which has been received with more pleasure by the scholars and statesmen of our country, than this of De Quincy. It will be a valuable addition to every library, public or private, and we trust it will find a place in them all.

St. Louis Mercantile Society.—The last annual report of the Directors, January, 1853, shows receipts, $6,563.92; expenditures, $5,716.04. In regard to membership, the report says, "Our account of membership stands now as follows:

Life Members, 43; Clerks, 283; Proprietors, 245; Beneficiaries, 203; Total, 774.

Though we have not increased our membership the past year as much as we could have wished, we have the gratifying result announced, that the number who avail themselves of the books of the library is on the increase, and the number of volumes now vastly greater than any previous year. The number of volumes issued this year is 9,416, against 7,672 for 1851, and the number of persons to whom issued 614, against 526 for 1851, showing an increase of volumes read of 1,744, and in the number of readers of 88. We would not felicitate ourselves upon the result, for we feel persuaded that it is the consequence of the tastes and intellectual wants which our predecessors have fostered. It may serve, however, to show that a large or forced increase of membership will not

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certainly result in a corresponding increase of those who read our books.

United States Review, for April, 1853.—This work, which has lately been established by Theodore A. Foster, for the advocacy of Democratic Principles of Government, is intended to be published monthly, at Washington City. Four numbers have already appeared, and we cannot but regard it as one of the highest class of American periodicals. The articles are prepared with great ability, and their moderation and spirit are such as must recommend them more especially to the people of the South, who are so much interested in the doctrines of strict construction and in the compromises of the Constitution.

The Cotton Plant.—Weekly. Washington and Baltimore. C. G. Baylor; two dollars per annum. This journal, which is devoted with so much ability to the promotion of Southern interests, and to the great objects of direct trade, of which Mr. Baylor has been the indefatigable advocate for several years past, preserves its interest and value. We learn with pleasure that Mr. Barnwell, our assistant on the Review, will also devote a portion of his time to the Cotton Plant, and that he will visit Europe the coming season in the service of both, and in the promotion of matters connected with the direct trade movement.

The Merchants' and Bankers' Almanac, for the year 1853, edited and published by Mr. J. Smith Homans, of the Bankers' Magazine, New-York, contains a vast amount of highly valuable information for the use of merchants and banking institutions, private bankers and others. Among the matters contained in the volume are the following:

1. Calendar pages and Chronology of important financial events.

2. List of Banks in the United States in each town and city—President and Cashier of each.

3. List of Private Bankers in seventy-three towns and cities of the U. S.

4. List of Banks and Bankers in London.

5. List of Private Bankers in all the leading cities of Europe, East Indies, South America, &c.

6. Seventy-three Engravings of recent Coins, American, English, French, and South American.

7. Commercial and Exchange Tables of all nations.

8. Census Reports of each State—Miscellaneous. The price of the volume, (200 pages,) elegantly printed, is one dollar. *The publisher will forward copies per mail to order.* 167 Broadway, (up stairs,) New-York.

PAMPHLETS, ADDRESSES, REPORTS, &c.

1. A Night in Charleston, by Stephen.

2. Report of the Levee Commissioners of Bolivar County, Miss.

3. Letter to the Hon. Millard Filmore, in reply to charges made by Prof. McCullough, by J. C. Booth, Melter and Refiner U. S. Mint.

4. Twentieth Annual Report of the Directors of the Board of Trade.

5. An Oration before the Literary Societies of the South Carolina College, by Rev. J. M. Miles.

6. Eighteenth Report of the Mercantile Library Association of Cincinnati.

7. Address delivered before the Memphis Library Association, on Rail-roads, by Dr. W. A. Booth.

8. Circular Letter addressed to the commercial and business men of the United States and foreign countries, by the Board of Directors of the city of Brunswick, Geo.

9. Address to the Law Class of the Cumberland University at Lebanon, Tenn., by Aaron V. Brown.

A WORK FOR EVERY LIBRARY.

Once more we call attention to the "*Industrial Resources*"—a work we have prepared and published at great labor and expense, which contains all the important matter of 13 volumes of the Review and seven years, which is beautifully printed, handsomely bound in three volumes of 600 pages each, or 1,800 pages in all, and is withal the only encyclopædia of Southern information complete in every department. Considering the quantity of matter, no work has yet been published in the country at so cheap a price, to wit, $3 per volume (as we pay the postage on cash orders for the work, about 33 cents per vol.). Ought not every subscriber to the Review to obtain this truly beautiful and compact edition, with which he can have, or we will have for him, at a low rate, all future volumes bound uniformly?

If planters cannot spare the means now, we will receive orders upon commission merchants in large towns, payable on sale of next crops. Surely this is liberal; but, having gone to an enormous expense, we do wish to be reimbursed. If any one is not pleased, return the book at our risk and cost. Will not our friends stir themselves in getting and sending orders?

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We trust that our friends who intend ordering the *Industrial Resources* will do so without delay, as the edition is small, and we desire to close it. As an evidence of how little the South has sustained us in this most expensive and laborious publication, it is only necessary to state, that the sales up to this time, north of the Potomac, have been sixfold larger than at the South. Indeed, the subscription list to the Review is almost as large in New-York as in New-Orleans. The Industrial Resources embrace every article of value contained in the 13 volumes of the Review, besides an immense amount of other matter, brought down to the first of January, 1853.

Our Future.

There will be no change in the editorial of the Review, in consequence of the editor having accepted the office of Commissioner of the Census, as he has always had the assistance of able coadjutors; or in the business department, well organized as it is, under experienced and responsible persons. The more extended field which is opened, will rather enlarge and diversify the interests of the *Review;* and whilst its distinctive character as a southern work is preserved, will make it, in many senses, a national one. Already has its circulation extended to every state of the Union.

For every other purpose than the *business* of the *Review*, the address of the editor, until December next, will be Washington City.

Other letters will be addressed simply, "*De Bow's Review*," New-Orleans.

There are sub-offices of the *Review* in most of the large cities, where the work, or the *Industrial Resources*, may be obtained, by order; as, for example, at Mobile, of M. Boulmet; at Charleston, B. F. De Bow; at Richmond, J. W. Randolph; at Washington City, Frank Taylor; at New-York, Pudney and Russell; at Boston, Redding & Co., &c. &c.

Closing Note.

Subscribers to the Review who have not paid up their dues, will ask themselves if it is fair and just to us. In the universal prosperity of the country now towards which our labors for many years have contributed, ought we not to be among the very first remembered! What we ask is small, and has been earned ten times over. Remittances are frequently neglected from an oversight. Many think that another time will do as well, and thus they embarrass us without serving themselves. Our bills have all gone out—we ask the money or orders upon merchants, assuming ourselves all risks, and acknowledging payments on the cover. If there are errors in accounts, we are prepared to correct—if numbers have not been received, we are prepared to supply them. In fact we want to do everything that is right, and want every one to do the same to us. Our expenses have been greatly increased in the improvements now made upon the Review.

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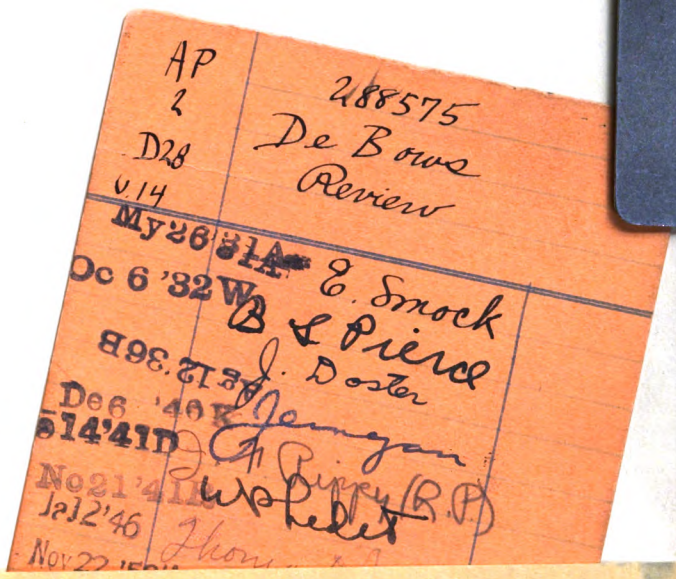

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